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ABSTRACT

This collection of papers by nine different authors focuses on the following topics related to the school principal: administrative change, decisionmaking, educational planning, communication strategies, and evaluation. A main theme is that the principal's role has become highly complicated, that there is some disagreement as to the precise nature of the role, and that those who are principals or who work with principals should attempt to develop a reasonable perspective on the principals' job. A related document is EA 001 578. (Author/LIP)

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FOREWORD

The "principal as an administrator" may seem to be a rather vague topic for a publication of this nature. However, the premise which is basic to this particular approach is that the principal has important activities in the area of "general administration." As a basic conceptual framework, the rather well used analysis of the administrative process was used for the set of papers in the Lecture Series. The introductory paper by Erwin Miklos in fact presents the analytical framework within which the remaining papers are set.

One observation can be offered here; it is that all of the papers should be examined if one is to obtain a point of view about the principal as administrator. Just as the administrative process itself cannot justifiably be separated into discrete "functions," the papers in this volume are most useful if taken as a whole rather than piece meal. Perhaps the main theme running through the papers is that the principal's role has become highly complicated, that there is some disagreement as to the precise nature of the role, and that those who are principals or who work with principals should attempt to develop a reasonable perspective on the principals' job. The papers in this publication constitute one attempt to develop such a perspective.

D. A. MacKay, *Course Director*

THE ADMINISTRATIVE PROCESS

E. MIKLOS

A principal is an administrator. The tasks which confront him and the activities in which he is expected to engage are similar to those of other administrators. It follows, therefore, that significant insights into the work of a principal may be obtained from analyses of the nature of administration and of administrative behavior. It is the intent of this paper to relate some considerations of administration as a general process within organizations to the administrative tasks of a principal.

A Concept of Administration

Administration is an integral and essential part of all organized activity. It is not something which is forced or imposed as an unnatural addition upon a series of activities or upon the work of a group. Although organized activity implies the presence of administration, the activity does not dictate a particular form of administration. The form of administration varies with the demands of particular situations, with the preferences of members of the organization, and with the preferences of those who hold administrative positions. It may make some sense to question whether a particular way of administering an organization is the most appropriate or suitable way; it makes little sense to question whether or not the activity requires administration.

Whenever collective action is required, whenever there is a need for order in a series of activities, whenever a group seeks to attain a goal, administration is required. In some types of loosely organized activities, organizational and administrative tasks are carried out as part of the ongoing work without formalization or specialization. In more complex situations, administration becomes the responsibility of particular members of the organization. The principalship is the focus of that specialization in the administration of a school.

Some indication of both the diffuse and the specific aspects of administrative activity are revealed by particular conceptualizations of administration. One definition of administration states that it is "the total of the processes through which appropriate human and material resources are made available and made effective for accomplishing the purposes of an enterprise."[1] This suggests that some aspects of administration are dispersed throughout an organization even though major aspects of it are centralized in the responsibilites of those designated as administrators. The more complex the organization task, the greater appears to be the tendency to remove administrative functions from members in general and to assign them to particular individuals. This is where the principal enters the scene. The major responsibility for making certain that conditions exist for effective teaching and learning resides with him, even though teachers and others may share in what might be called administrative work. One of the dilemmas in any organized activity relates to decisions of who should be involved in what particular ways in administration. Relieving people of administrative responsibilities frees them to devote more time to their specialized tasks but removes them from areas of decision making which may be of concern to them. The extent to which and the way in which teachers can or should be involved in administration are topics for lengthy discussion.

If administration is conceptualized as a process which is present in an organization, we can now raise some questions about the elements or components of this process. What are the essential processes for making available and making effective human and material resources so that the purposes of an enterprise might be accomplished? What components of the process must be present in schools to ensure that effective teaching and learning will take place? Some tentative answers to these questions are revealed by various analyses of the process of administration.

Administration as a Process

Historically, viewing administration as a process was one of the first approaches selected in attempting to theorize about administration. It is still one of the most useful ways of seeking answers to questions about the nature of administration and the work of administrators. It is also the approach that is perhaps the only one which is unique to administration.

More than fifty years ago, Fayol attempted to describe the essential administrative functions or processes; he considered the elements of managing to be planning, organizing, coordinating, controlling, and commanding.[2] About twenty years later, in an analysis specific to public administration, Gulick discussed the work of a chief executive in terms of the functions of planning, organizing, coordinating, staffing, directing, reporting, and budgeting.[3] These lists of action words have been revised and extended by various analysts of the administrative process as is shown in Table I.[4]

Generally, the lists are intended to be both descriptive and prescriptive; that is, the components not only describe what administration is but also indicate what administrators should do. Successive writers have added components and redefined others in an effort to make the list more complete and also consistent with current thought about administrative practice. To some degree the lists indicate changing ideology about "good" administration; for example, controlling and commanding seem to have given way to stimulating and influencing. Although the writers vary in the components or elements which they have identified, in the stress which they place on interrelationships, and in the emphasis upon sequence in the administrative process, there are also many points of similarity in their analyses. The attempts to describe and prescribe have already been mentioned. One other similarity is that these are all armchair analyses; the identification of the components is based on experience and reflection, not on empirical research into the nature of administrative activity.

One of the most recent formulations is that developed and described by Litchfield. He places emphasis on both the interrelationship and the sequence of components as he proposes that the administrative process is a "cycle of action" which includes the specific activities of decision making, programming, communication, controlling, and reappraising.[5] He states:

> In an idealized form it occurs as a logical sequence in which there is a progression from the making of a decision to the interpretation of the decision in the form of specific programs, to the

TABLE I

COMPONENTS OF THE ADMINISTRATIVE PROCESS IDENTIFIED BY VARIOUS WRITERS*

Components of Process	Writer						
	Fayol	Gulick	Newman	Sears	AASA	Litchfield	Gregg
Planning	x	x					
Organizing	x	x	x	x	x		x
Coordinating	x	x	x	x			x
Controlling	x			x	x	x	x
Commanding	x		x	x			
Staffing		x					
Directing		x					
Reporting		x	x	x			
Budgeting		x					
Assembling Resources							
Allocating			x				
Stimulating					x		
Evaluating					x		
Decision-Making					x	x	x
Communicating						x	x
Programming						x	x
Influencing						x	

*See Reference No. 4 for sources.

communication of that programmed decision, to the establishment of controls for the realization of the decision, and finally to the reappraisal of the decision as programmed, communicated, and controlled.[6]

The elements which Litchfield presents appear, at least on the surface, to be reasonably meaningful. However, the stress which is placed on the cycle of action seems to present administration as a more mechanistic activity than it probably is; it implies much more rationality and deliberate action than characterizes the work of most administrators. Litchfield, and others who present a "cycle" analysis, recognize that the cycle may be shortened and that each element involves other elements as well. Decision making does not always lead to reappraisal; decision making may well involve reappraising and communicating. In view of these inherent difficulties it is questionable whether much is to be gained, in developing a concept of administration, from an over-emphasis on a cycle or sequence of action. Accordingly, a more simplified approach has been adopted for this paper; the elements of the process will be identified, their interrelationship will be recognized, but each will be discussed separately.

Components of the Administrative Process

The description of the administrative process which seems most useful for the purposes of this paper is the one presented by Gregg.[7] His formulation is eclectic; he includes components which have been accepted since the earliest analyses as well as those which have been included only recently. Table I identifies the seven components of the administrative process as planning, organizing, coordinating, evaluating, decision making, communicating, and influencing. Although Gregg does not place these in any particular order, they will be described in a sequence which might well be that in which these occur in at least some administrative activities.

PLANNING. The basic concept of an administered organization as involving a logical, rational, progression toward the accomplishment of some objectives implies planning. Planning in an organization involves both deciding what to do and determining how this is to be done; it involves both the identification of objectives and the laying out of alternatives for the achievement of the objectives. Although planning is a function of all administrators, it might become the specific responsibility of a particular department in a complex operation. Carrying out research and preparing proposals for courses of action may involve numerous people in industrial concerns. What planning is required in education particularly at the level of the school and how adequately is it being carried out?

DECISION MAKING. In the views of some analysts, administration and decision making are almost synonymous; administrative behavior is seen as decision making behavior, and the organization is viewed as a structure for decision making. Although this leads to some fruitful theorizing, there may yet be some advantages to retaining a more narrow concept of decision making. There is no question about the fact that much of the work of an administrator involves making decisions. He either makes the decisions, creates structures and conditions for making decisions, or controls the decision making process in an organization. During the planning phase various alternatives are identified; although this phase has involved some decision making, decisions of more consequence are made in the selection of one from among a number of possible alternatives. In the administration of education we have numerous unresolved questions about who should be making what decisions. What decisions should be made at the level of the province, at the level of the school system, and in the school? What are appropriate decision areas for teachers and for administrators? How can the process of cooperative decision making be implemented or improved? What is an appropriate decision structure in education? Answers to these and similar questions would go a long way toward clarifying the decision making component of the administrative process.

ORGANIZING. This is another component of the process which is closely linked to our general concept of administration. Frequently the good administrator is the one who can create order out of disorder in the most skillful manner; the good organizer is the good administrator even though he may be less capable in other components of the process. Once a decision has been made, there is a demand for a means, for an organized way of achieving the objective. This involves both long-term organization in the form of a more or less permanent design as well as day to day organizing or the establishing of relationships among parts of the system. A principal does much of his organizing at the beginning of

the year; however, as problems arise during the year and as new demands are made by teachers or pupils, the organization has to be changed. New persons may have to be incorporated into the structure and a place must be found for new activities. Over longer periods of time there is a need for even more organizing as objectives change, as new personnel enter the system, and as the system grown both in size and in diversity of program. Organizing has to be an on-going, a continuous activity. Perhaps one of the greatest faults of administrators is that they develop certain forms of organization, certain ways of doing things, and then retain these after the circumstances for which they were appropriate have changed.

Principals might usefully subject the general organization of the school to critical examination. What alternative ways are there for organizing teaching staff? How can the day to day process of organizing be improved? How might certain problems of organizing be overcome so that desirable program changes could be introduced?

COORDINATING. Organizing involves placing parts of an organization, whether human or material, in a certain relationship to each other. It is a matter of common experience that some attention also needs to be given to maintaining that relationship among the parts. The activities of various individuals must be meshed with each other; resources have to be available at the right place at the right time. These tasks involve the function of coordinating.

How much coordination is required in schools and in what areas is it required are difficult questions. Generally, considerable variation in such things as teaching methods, forms of pupil control, and similar practices are possible from classroom to classroom. However, there are limits to the possible variations. Certain minimums must be observed, practices have to be coordinated to some extent, either on the initiative of teachers or as a result of administrative decisions. The need for coordination places limits on what individuals can do in much the same way as the need for organization involves limits. As a result, some conflicts and dilemmas are present whenever there is a resistance to the imposition of controls. Principals might be advised to be sensitive to the problems inherent in over-coordination in order to avoid organizational problems in this sphere.

COMMUNICATING. Administration, and even an organization, hinges upon communication. Information and decisions have to be conveyed to appropriate centers; persons in certain offices must know what is taking place in other parts of an organization. Information about the effects of decisions must be transmitted from lower levels to higher levels. Administrators must be able to communicate with others both within and outside of the organization. More than this they must be able to establish communication channels so that there is communication where it is needed. This implies the need for both horizontal and upward communication as well as downward communication.

Principals find themselves in a strategic location as far as school and school system communication is concerned. Information from the school to the school system and to the community is channelled through the principal. Similarly, communications and information from these sources which is intended for the school as a whole passes through the office of the principal. This not only gives him access to much information but also places upon him the responsibility for accurate and effective transmission of the messages. What are the most effective means of communication for specific purposes? What can be done to improve communication? What are some desirable and undesirable filters in a communication channel? These and other questions suggest some of the areas in which administrators should be knowledgeable about communication.

INFLUENCING. Gregg has selected "influencing" as a component of the administrative process over such possibilities as commanding, directing, and controlling. These and related terms give recognition to the need in organized activity for bringing influence to bear upon people who are members of the organization. Principals must be able to influence teachers and pupils if the school is to be organized and if the work is to be coordinated. Principals must also be able to influence administrative personnel at higher levels and community groups if the school is to receive the resources and support which it requires. In order to exert this influence a principal must be able to draw upon some source of influence. Part of this is the power which resides in the office, part of this resides in his own expertise, and part resides in the relationships which he is able to establish with others. For most principals the latter two are probably more important than is the former. A significant area for study in-

volves how principals might seek to increase their ability to influence and also how to use that ability wisely and effectively. This implies knowing not only how to influence, but also when to attempt to influence for what particular ends.

EVALUATING. The final component of the administrative process involves appraising or evaluating. Logically, it might be considered the last step in the sequence of action; however, it is related to each of the other components as well. The outcomes of a particular decision should be evaluated but evaluation is not restricted to this area. Evaluation can be applied also to the process of planning, to decision making, to assessing the effectiveness of the organization, and so on to include the entire administrative process. The total effectiveness of the organization also needs to be assessed in some way even though this presents some very real problems in an enterprise such as education.

Evaluation is one of the most difficult and complex aspects of the administrative process. How any particular decision, or step, or activity is to be evaluated presents far greater problems than are involved in questions of how something is to be communicated, for example. Not only do criteria have to be established but means have to be developed for comparing results with established criteria. These and other considerations indicate some of the areas where significant improvements have to be made if evaluation in administration and in education is to become a meaningful activity.

THE TOTAL PROCESS. One way of conceptualizing administration is to consider it as the total of the components described above. Effective administration involves not only effective performance in each of these but also appropriate emphasis and appropriate sequence in accordance with the demands of a particular situation. Perhaps some components of the process are more crucial to the work of a principal than are others; perhaps specific components are involved in particular task areas. This analysis will be pursued in the following section in an attempt to relate the process in a more meaningful manner to the administrative tasks of a principal.

Administrative Tasks and Administrative Process

Educational administration has been conceptualized as an organizational process; it may also be conceptualized in terms of a number of task areas in which administrators work. Campbell, Corbally, and Ramseyer have identified six operational areas of educational administrators which have been adapted for the purposes of this paper.[3] These areas are as follows: school program (curriculum and instruction), pupil personnel, staff personnel, community relationships, physical facilities, and school management. School and school system administrators have varying responsibilities in each of these areas. The administrative process is involved in work in each of them. This section of the paper is concerned with identifying the particular responsibilities of principals. The general discussion is summarized in Table II.

SCHOOL PROGRAM. The school program includes the numerous activities and processes which relate directly to the instructional goals of the school and to the means intended to achieve those goals. If the administrative activities of a principal are to enhance and to further the attainment of instructional goals, then the school program should be the main focus of his administrative activity. But there are numerous indications that this is not the case; principals appear to avoid intensive involvement in the instructional program leaving this area mainly to teachers. No doubt there are good reasons why this situation obtains. Yet it seems reasonable to suggest that there are many opportunities for principals to be involved in the instructional program without infringing upon those aspects which might be considered to be the proper concern of teachers. The significance of the principalship is probably directly related to the extent to which this position implies involvement with instruction.

Although all teachers might be expected to show an interest in all aspects of the instructional program, it is evident that the main responsibility for this concern falls to the principal. He must take the initiative in planning a total school program. Ideally this will include the identification of a number of operational objectives and the means for achieving them. Procedures must be developed for making decisions about the alternatives which are available. The specific decisions will involve what the course offerings of a school shall be, what will be an appropriate sequence of courses, and who shall take what courses. Obviously, there are some differences in the types of decisions among different types of schools.

Most of the task of organizing the program and organizing for the implementation of the program falls to the principal. This

TABLE II

COMPONENTS OF THE ADMINISTRATIVE PROCESS IN SIX OPERATIONAL AREAS OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

Components of Process	Operational Area					
	School Program	Pupil Personnel	Staff Personnel	Community Relations	Physical Facilities	Management
Planning	Identify specific objectives and devise means	Inventory of numbers and special needs	Staff needs	Program of school community contact	Design of buildings	School management
Decision Making	Select objectives and means; decide content of program	Space and services required	Selection of staff	Form and frequency of contact	Best use of available space	School needs, requisitions
Organizing	Schedule courses and individual programs	Grouping pupils, accounting procedures	Assign teaching duties	Schedule contacts for year	Use of space and equipment	Procedures, delegate duties
Coordinating	Maintain balance in program	Special services, movement of groups	Related work of teachers	School and other activities	Relate need to availability	Management with other activities
Communicating	Among staff members on program involvement	Needs to higher levels	Provide and receive information	Exchange information	Needs to higher levels	On needs with staff
Influencing	Availability of resources and work on program involvement	Pupil control, provision of services	Motivate teacher improvement	Attitudes toward school	Extent of use of facilities	Allocation of resources
Evaluation	Assess outcomes and adequacy of program	Pupil progress, adequacy of services	Assist with self-evaluation	Effectiveness of relations	Use of present facilities	Efficiency of procedures

can become particularly demanding if newer forms of organization are being introduced or if flexibility is desired in the form of organization. Maintaining balance and coordination among various parts of the program also falls to the principal; achieving continuity without excessive overlap is likely to prove to be a challenging task.

Attempts at coordination are closely linked with communication among those involved in the school program. Provisions need to be made for communication among teachers, objectives must be communicated to teachers and pupils, and information must be conveyed to the school system and the community. The principal will probably wish to influence teachers in program improvements and also to extend influence to higher levels for improvements which the staff might wish to include in the program.

Finally, the principal should initiate and provide leadership in evaluating the adequacy of the program. This may involve such assessments as examining educational and career success of pupils or the application of more immediate criteria through testing programs. It is evident that each component of the administrative process can be identified in the work of a principal which relates to the instructional program.

PUPIL PERSONNEL. Another operational area concerns pupil personnel and pupil personnel services. The major tasks involve or are related to the organization and accounting of pupils and to the provision of special services where these are needed. The planning component of the administrative process is probably most evident in the form of inventories of numbers of pupils and breakdowns of pupils by various characteristics. On the basis of this information decisions can be made about what space, what classes, what services should be provided and how these might be obtained.

Organizing consists of classifying pupils into groups and matching groups with available space and staff personnel. Maintaining working relationships among these groups is part of the task of coordination. Furthermore, when various special services to pupils are provided, the principal may have some coordinating responsibilities. It is a long-standing part of the principal's role that he should communicate with and attempt to be influential in controlling pupil behavior. Evaluation takes on a variety of forms from assessing the adequacy of services to the preparation of individual pupil reports.

STAFF PERSONNEL. Most aspects of administrative work involve relationships with other school personnel; however, there are also some tasks which relate specifically to the teaching staff. In most school systems decisions about staff are made at the level of the central office. In spite of this practice, there are a number of opportunities and needs for involvement of the principal. It is the responsibility of the principal to assess the staff needs of his school and to advise the superintendent's office of these needs. He may even become involved in selection decisions.

The organizational decision of where a particular teacher is to be placed and what duties will be assigned should reside, to a considerable degree, at the level of the school. If too many commitments are made by the central office, considerable flexibility and scope for decisions may be lost to the school and to the principal.

The need to develop and maintain effective channels of communication between teachers and principal as well as among teachers is obvious. Each teacher should know what his colleagues are doing, or are attempting to do, as should the principal. Attempts on the part of a principal to motivate, to stimulate, and to influence the teaching staff are considered by many to be his most significant function. Although there is still a lack of agreement about the appropriate role of the principal in relation to evaluating teachers, there should be little disagreement over the desirability of principal involvement in assisting teachers to evaluate their teaching performance.

SCHOOL-COMMUNITY RELATIONS. Schools operate as integral parts of a community. Whether or not there will be contact is not really in question; only the amount and the form of the contact between school and community may merit some discussion. Too frequently, this operational area stimulates discussion only in terms of explaining the school to the community. Perhaps we, as administrators or students of administration, have been giving the community too little attention. The characteristics of the community may be significant in explaining the pupils to the school and in suggesting the design of a suitable school program. Our analyses and approaches might be improved by more adequate attention to the need for two-way communication in school-community relations.

In view of the significance of the relationship, some planning about the nature of school-community contact, as well as some conscious and deliberate decision making about the form of this contact, seem to be in order. Consequently, this will introduce administrative activity in organizing the school-community contacts.

Information gained through these contacts may also aid the principal in coordinating school activities with those of other agencies to avoid conflicts. It may also be possible to achieve the integration of school interests with other community groups.

Communication may be the major objective in school-community contacts; the school seeks to provide information and to obtain reactions to its program and activities. As a result of this communication there may be mutual influence of the school on the community and the community on the school. The extent to which this reciprocal influence is achieved might be used in evaluating the effectiveness or appropriatness of the school-community contacts.

PHYSICAL FACILITIES. The provision of physical facilities involves one of the most clear-cut examples of the need for and the opportunity for administrative planning. The desire to provide more diversified and also more specialized programs has accentuated the need to plan the physical facilities which would make it possible to implement the desired programs. This applies to planning both new facilities and to alterations in existing facilities. Extensive preparation is required so that appropriate decisions can be made about what facilities will be provided and how these will be used.

In addition to the organizing which is involved in planning and decision making, organizing and coordinating is also required in scheduling the use of space and equipment and in relating availability to need. Extensive communication and influence may be needed in attempting to bring about improvements in facilities; this will also involve extensive evaluation of the use to

which present facilities and equipment are being put.

SCHOOL MANAGEMENT. Management relates to all of the activities which are required to keep a school operating: records, reports, correspondence, requisitions, inventories, and so forth. Into this area fall many of the specific tasks that are considered by some to comprise the totality of administration. This is the operational area in which many essential yet time consuming tasks make demands on the available time and energy that should be applied to the other operational areas; a thorough analysis of the area in terms of the administrative process might be fruitful.

Some deliberate planning and decision making relative to how the school is to be managed may alleviate some problems and result in some saving of time. Planning in the form of developing schedules for the completion of management tasks may help to keep these in proper perspective. Specific attention to organizing for the performance of management tasks might result in the identification of tasks which could be routinized and performed by clerical staff or delegated to others. The principal then might become more of a coordinator as he communicates with and influences those who carry out the routine tasks. A thorough evaluation of management tasks might even result in the identification of activities which perform no real function and which could be eliminated.

Conclusion

This paper has identified two separate perspectives and a combination of the two which may be useful in analyzing the tasks and responsibilities of a principal. The first of these is the administrative process perspective. Seven components were described in sufficient detail to enable a principal to relate each component to his behavior as a principal; however, the way in which each of these components is manifested in various situations could not be developed. Hopefully, the present outline may prove useful as an overview for more specific developments and discussions.

Principals might also use the six operational areas which were identified—school program, pupil personnel, staff personnel, school-community relations, physical facilities, and school management—to review and assess the breadth of their administrative activities. This may result in achieving some balance in the types of activities which demand attention. Finally, the combination of process components and task areas, may be useful in identifying the administrative functions that a principal can attempt to fulfill in each of these areas. It is hoped that analyses such as these may result in the identification of unique and significant contributions which principals can make to the effective operation of schools.

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DECISION-MAKING: MUST IT BE A COOPERATIVE ACTIVITY?

E. RATSOY

A decade ago Griffiths suggested that decision-making is the key concept in the process of formulating a theory of administrative behavior which would provide practicing administrators with a set of guides to action. Griffiths takes the position that, "the central function of administration is directing and controlling the decision-making process," and adds,

> It is not only central in the sense that it is more important than other functions, as some writers have indicated, but it is central in that *all* other functions of administration can best be interpreted in terms of the decision-making process (Griffiths, 1958, p. 122).

Decision-making is the process of selecting the most promising of the available alternatives in order to prepare the way for effective action. Miklos claims that decision-making is but one of seven elements of the administrative process (Miklos, 1968). Gregg points out that the essential interrelatedness of these seven elements should be emphasized (Gregg, 1957, p. 274). We know that decisions are seldom made without *planning* and *organizing* for them. In the same way decision-making may be related to, or part of, *communicating*, *influencing*, *coordinating* and *evaluating*.

This suggests that decisions do not occur in a vacuum. In addition, most decision-making is an orderly process. It is understandable why writers on decision-making in education develop in some detail the process of decision-making. Such analyses of the steps in decision-making have been made elsewhere and since the purpose of the present paper is to discuss the role of the principal in educational decision-making a detailed analysis of decision-making as a process will not be undertaken here. Suffice it to say that several writers, notably Griffiths equate decision-making with problem solving and proceed to list the steps in decision-making which turn out to be the familiar steps of the scientific method of problem solving (*vide*, Griffiths, 1959). An article by Oliva in the February, 1968, *CSA Bulletin* and a recent text by Hanlon (1968, p. 49) use this approach. The present paper instead begins with a discussion of the levels of decision-making in Canadian education. Next it presents an analysis of authority and the relationship of authority to decision-making. The third section focuses on factors which may complicate decision-making in the school. The final section is the summary and conclusion.

Levels of Educational Decision-Making

The formal structure of Canadian education is such that educators at various "levels" in this structure are limited to certain types of educational decisions. There are as well factors other than position in the hierarchy of educational positions which affect one's freedom to make decisions. Some of these are outlined later in the paper. For the moment the focus is on one set of situational variables that affect educational decision-making.

Table I presents a list of the five "main" levels of educational decision-making in Canada. Included as well are four types of decisions made and a continuum indicating how remote from the clients the particular level or locus of decision-making is. In discussing the table three degrees of remoteness from the student will be used. These are described in detail in a 1964 NEA publication which refers to them as the *societal*, *institutional*, and *instructional* levels of decision-making (NEA, 1964, p. 1). It is evident that the more remote the level of decision-making from the student, the more long-range and general are the decisions made at that level. No one-to-one correspondence between levels and types of decisions exists (or is implied by the present writer). It should be evident too that the four types of decisions are "ideal types" in that decisions do not always neatly fall into one or another of these categories. Nevertheless, for purposes of analysis and discussion, there is an advantage in treating goals, policies, programs and procedures as discrete categories.

At the federal, provincial, and school system levels the *societal decisions* affecting education are made. Here elected representatives of society set the priorities in education by deciding on the goals and general aims and determining policies for

implementing these. Levels 2a, 3 and to some extent level 4 are responsible for making the *institutional decisions* in education. Policies for implementing the general goals of education are outlined, specific goals are determined and, on the basis of these, programs are designed. Laymen and professional educators share about equally the responsibility for decision-making at the institutional level. At the level of greatest concern to the classroom teacher and his students, the *instructional decisions* are made. These are essentially professional decisions which take into account the realities of the particular teaching assignment. Day-to-day decisions on the content and methodology to be used in his classroom are made by the teacher.

Table II presents examples of decisions made at each level. It is noteworthy that educational decision-making in Canada is decentralized nationally with the federal government playing a relatively small part. We know, for example, that the federal government is the source of only four per cent of the funds spent annually on Canadian education.

Table II reveals that deciding what is to be taught in a particular classroom is a joint responsibility involving levels 2 to 5 inclusive with each level setting certain limitations on the level below but all levels having some jurisdiction. This table, like Table I, highlights the increasing specificity as one moves down from a higher to a lower level beginning with general aims and general curriculum and ending with specific objectives, specific content and specific methods. Figure I illustrates for curriculum content and procedure (the 'what's" and "how's" of instruction), the change in emphasis as one shifts from a level remote from the classroom to one less remote. From the teacher's viewpoint (least remote level) the choice of curriculum structure and content is most limited, the choice of instructional techniques greatest. At the most remote level, the concern is more with the "what's" in education and least on the techniques of "how" these goals or general objectives are to be reached in particular classrooms. As a quotation by Mayer in February's *Administrative Leadership* illustrates, the two lower levels, namely, the school and the classroom levels, are probably the most important decision-making levels of the ones identified here. Mayer, an author and chairman of a New York local school board states (somewhat facetiously, I suspect),

> . . . somebody still has to run the schools and there is nobody to do it, except the professional staff. So the essence of the situation has been that the community votes on monetary appropriations and elects a board to choose a superintendent and otherwise the decisions are made by the professional staff which tells the lay board what it thinks (Mayer, 1968, p. 6).

Whether all, or even any, teachers and school boards really behave as Mayer suggests is not particularly relevant to the present paper. What is more important is dis-

TABLE I

LEVELS OF EDUCATIONAL DECISION-MAKING

Level	Remoteness from Students	Types of Decisions
	Most remote	GENERAL AND LONG-RANGE
1. Federal	(Societal decisions)	(a) Goals and general aims of education
2. Provincial		
(i) Legislature		
(ii) Department of Education		(b) Policies
2a. Intermediate "Zone"		
3. School System		
(i) Elected School Board		(c) Programs
(ii) Superintendent and Central Office Staff	Less remote	
	(Institutional decisions)	
4. School (Principal and Staff)		
	Close to Students	(d) Procedures
5. Classroom (Teachers and Students)	(Instructional decisions)	
		SPECIFIC AND IMMEDIATE

TABLE II

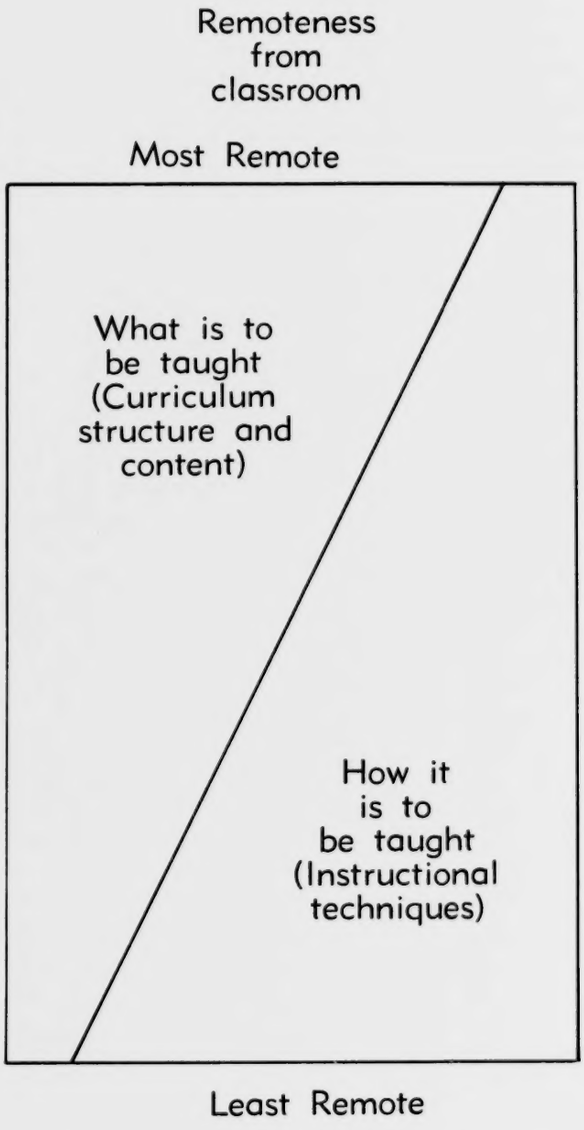
EXAMPLES OF DECISIONS MADE AT EACH LEVEL

Level	Decisions
1. Federal (represents Canadian citizenry)	Indirect involvement; financial, various departments Where the final decision-making regarding distribution of authority in Canadian education rests What the rights of minority groups shall be.
2. Provincial (represents residents of province)	Establishing general aims for education Organizing elementary, secondary, and teriary education. Outlining programs of study and approving textbooks. Determine how education shall be financed.
2.a. *Intermediate "Zone"	Decisions related to specialized services (centralization and decentralization)
3. School System (represents residents of school district)	Decisions on what to include, emphasize in the program of that district. How funds should be allocated in the district (where schools built, type).
4. School (parent-teacher groups represent residents of attendence area).	How to organize students and staff in the school (vertical and horizontal organization). How to distribute the school day.
5. Classroom	Decide what to teach (within provincial and local requirements) Decide on procedures to be used in the specific class (sequence, methods) Decide on organiation within the class.

*A fairly recent development in Canadian education.

COONTINUUM ILLUSTRATING SCOPE OF EDUCATIONAL DECISION-MAKING

FIGURE I


Remoteness from classroom
Most Remote
What is to be taught (Curriculum structure and content)
How it is to be taught (Instructional techniques)
Least Remote

tinction he makes between two types of educational decision-makers, the professional staff and laymen.

Although Mayer suggests that laymen typically leave educational decision-making to professional staff it is common knowledge that there is often lack of agreement between educators and lay people—as well as among educators and among laymen—on who should make what decisions. In terms of the levels identified, the conflict boils down to, "Which level should be making what decisions?" What criteria should one use in assigning a specific decision to one level and not another? Whereas it may be universally understood that the decision on how much to increase the school mill rate belongs to the school system level it may be much less clear as to who has jurisdiction over the decision to introduce a T-V series in science. Examples of types of decisions which may be a source of conflict between levels are listed in Table III.

The seven areas identified are illustrative and not exhaustive. Many other areas of unclear or questionable jurisdiction exist. Are these seven areas examples of "administrative" decisions to be made remote from the classroom by principals and other administrative personnel? Or, are they rightfully classroom "instructional" decisions over which the teacher should have final

authority? And how extensive should lay involvement be?

The next section of this paper which presents an analysis of authority sheds some light on the criteria that might be used to decide who (or what level) has the "right" to make a particular decision.

Authority in Decision-Making

The authority to make a decision and to see that it is carried out may have several sources. In order to somewhat limit the discussion below the commonly recognized sources are presented. Those identified by Max Weber are probably as well known as any. Weber suggests that there are three "ideal types" or sources of authority. An individual may have his will prevail over others for one of these three reasons:

(a) *He may have legal authority over them.* That is, by virtue of the laws and policies passed (and recognized) by society or its agents authority may be vested in a position one holds. Thus, in relation to pupil promotion decisions the *Alberta School Act* grants the superintendent of schools authority over principals who, in turn, have authority over teachers. This authority might be referred to as *positional authority* or the authority of office. Positional authority grants the incumbent the right to make decisions that affect his subordinates, and, within the limits of the law, to direct subordinates to carry out these decisions. Legal authority carries with it the right to employ formal sanctions—rewards as well as punishments—to encourage compliance among subordinates. This authority has been effective in many employee organizations. Foremen and managers, because of their control over salary increases, promotions, and the like, may be successful in having organizational goals achieved through the action of employees who are not really committed to these goals.

TABLE III

DECISION AREAS HARBOURING POTENTIAL CONFLICTS

1. Curriculum structure and content
   controversial issues—who decides on content, level?
   courses to be taught and specific content of each.
2. Instructional techniques and materials.
3. Organization of pupils and instructional personnel.
4. School structure and design—who determines?
5. Standards for instruction and promotion.
6. Class size.
7. Implementing instructional and organizational innovations.
   Whether? If so, when? How?

(b) *He may have traditional authority over them.* A second source of authority outlined by Weber is authority of tradition. I suppose we could call this quasi-legal authority. Teachers have commonly asked students to carry out certain activities—to take out their notebooks, for example. When one accepts a teaching position he is automatically cloaked with this traditional authority. The new teacher assumes the right to ask pupils under his charge to come to order, to take out their math. text and to turn to page ten; he also assumes that compliance will follow the request. I suggest this is quasi-legal authority because it automatically accrues to the individual who joins the ranks of a profession such as medicine or teaching. When one has qualified for membership in the chosen profession and is granted a licence or certificate to practice this licence bestows upon the recipient the traditional authority enjoyed by other members of the profession. Professional authority is probably a type of traditional authority.

(c) *He may have charismatic authority.* The third source of authority discussed by Weber is charismatic authority or the *mystical authority of person.* Charismatic authority appears to be a source of authority that Weber could not explain on rational grounds. Some people more than others—who seem to have the same personal characteristics or traits and identical legal and traditional authority—are able to rally forces after themselves. These followers, without being able to give a rational reason for doing so, recognize the charismatic person as an authority figure and obey him, in Weber's words,

> . . . by virtue of personal trust in him and his revelation, his heroism or his exemplary qualities so far as they fall within the scope of the individual's belief in his charisma (Weber, 1961, p. 235).

The term "Trudeaumania" was undoubtedly coined by those who believed there was no rational basis for the favorable reception Prime Minister Trudeau got at his pre-election rallies. We heard others use—more frequently during the past election than ever before—the term *charisma* to describe this mystical quality.

Weber's three sources or "ideal types" of authority—unless I misinterpret them—are not (to me) all inclusive enough. Although charismatic authority is one aspect of personal authority, it is not synonymous with personal authority. We recognize the

authority of a particular person—as apart from the office he holds—for reasons other than might be explained by his charisma. He may be more knowledgeable than we are in his field of specialization or we may recognize his superior skill in dealing with problems that confront us. The authority of knowledge or of superior skill can be explained on rational grounds so are not congruent with charismatic authority.

Administrators (or others) concerned with "How do I increase my authority?" might find it more rewarding to focus on authority of knowledge and authority of skill rather than on the other sources of authority dicussed in this paper. Each of us presumably has some control over the former. Although we cannot easily alter the authority that is vested by law or tradition in the office or position we hold and although we cannot easily change our personality so as to affect our charismatic authority, we can become more knowledgeable in matters related to our jobs or learn to deal more skillfully with people.

How does this discourse on authority and on the levels of decision-making in Canadian education relate to the role of the principal and decision-making in the school? I propose to demonstrate this relationship. Firstly, the two lowest levels identified in Tables I and II, namely, the school and the classroom levels have more relevance to the decisions that principals make or help make. The other three levels were presented so as to put these two levels in a meaningful perspective—decisions are not made in isolation and the situation must be taken into acount.

Secondly, because I make the assumption that educational decisions should be as rational as possible, I suggest that decisions should be made by those who have the greatest amount of *"rational" authority* to do so. Such authority includes authority of position, both legal and traditional and authority of person, including one's superior knowledge and skill.

What does this mean for the principal? The implication here is that since he has greater authority of position by law and tradition than does the teacher we would therefore expect him to make certain types of decisions and to see that they were implemented. An assumption underlying this approach is that the right to make the decision rests legally or by tradition at the school level—at least primarily—and not at another level. A second assumption is that the principal possesses more knowledge and skill (or know-how) in the area of concern than do the members of his instructional staff. Under such circumstances the principal can, and probably should either make the decision himself or be an influential participant in the decision-making process.

Factors Which Complicate Decision-Making at the School Level

To this point the ideas expressed may seem logical and common sense. The package looks too neat to be a description of actual decision-making practices in Canadian education—something must surely have been omitted. If decision-making is as rational as outlined why do we hear of principal-staff conflicts in our schools? The missing power in the hierarchy of levels presented earlier is the teachers' organization and the role it plays. Where does it belong in this decision-making hierarchy. How influential is the collective will of practicing teachers in determining policy and practice in the provincial education picture?

To provide some background for the discussion of the impact of the teachers' association on decision-making in the school I propose to make a brief reference to role theory. Role theory as outlined by Getzels, Lipham and Campbell (1968) suggests that the role of teacher or administrator has associated with it many different, often conflicting expectations. These may arise because an individual occuping a particular position or office (role),

> . . . is required to conform simultaneously to a number of expectations which are mutually exclusive, contradictory, or inconsistent, so that fulfillment of one set of expectations interferes with fulfillment of another. . . . This conflict . . . has three sources: (1) contradiction between the expectations of two or more roles which an individual is attempting to fill simultaneously (interrole conflict), (2) disagreement between two or more reference groups each defining expectations between two or more reference groups each defining expectations for the same role (interreference group conflict), and (3) disagreement within a reference group regarding the expectations held for a given role (intrareference-group conflict) (Getzels, Lipham and Campbell, 1968, p. 216).

The main conflict of relevance to this paper is the interrole conflict faced by teachers and principals who are at one and the same time employees of an organization

which may prescribe more or less minutely what they may or may not do and members of a professional group which outlines certain modes of behavior believed to be appropriate for specially trained persons with expertness in a particular field.

Corwin highlights this possible source of conflict in another way.

> In a professional-employee society, the fundamental tension is not between the individual and the system, but between parts of the system—between the professional and the bureaucratic principles of organization. . . .
>
> . . . The professionalization of any vocation (including school administration) will involve boundary disputes among laymen, the professionals, and public administrators. These boundary disputes . . . also infect the vocation itself, breaking it into segments or coalitions which compete among themselves (Corwin, 1967, p. 404).

Table IV presents a list of generally agreed upon characteristics of a profession, a parallel set of characteristics of employee organizations (or bureaucracies) and a set of expectations for the behavior of the professional-employee role incumbent based on the six characteristics of a profession. Comparison of the two sets of characteristics (columns 1 and 2) reveals points of agreement as well as points of conflict. Noteworthy is the third row concerning decision-making authority. The expectation by the profession appears to be that decision-making is decentralized and practitioners make decisions based on expertise (authority of knowledge and skill) whereas in an employee organization authority to make decisions is centralized in the hands of administrators who by virtue of their superordinate position possess greater authority of position, hence more total authority for decision-making. Inevitably the professional-employee is faced with conflicting demands or role expectations. Professional-employee conflicts appear inherent in the teacher role as long as teachers who are salaried employees continue their drive to improve the professional status of their occupation. Using the barometer of increasing quantity of recently published literature on professional-employee role conflict in education I predict an increase in such conflict in the future. To the extent that teachers resolve this conflict by insisting on their professional rights —as they seem to be doing—to this extent principals will have no alternative but to involve them in educational decisions that are made in the school, especially if these decisions relate to matters that affect them.

Several examples of recently adopted (or re-affirmed) Alberta Teachers' Association policy statements illustrate the thoughts and expectations of the teacher body in this province in reference to various types of educational decisions. In general they appear to reflect a desire for greater decision-making powers by teachers. Four of these are presented here.

TABLE IV

EXPECTATIONS FOR BEHAVIOR OF PROFESSIONAL-EMPLOYEE

Characteristics of Profession	Characteristics of Employee Organizations	Expectations for Professional Person
1. Specialized knowledge (Intellectual emphasis) Emphasis on Competence	Specialization (Division of Labor) Emphasis on Competence	Possesses specialized knowledge (seeks self-improvement-research etc.) (high intellectual attainment)
2. Service Ideal (client orientation) (Social-service emphasis)	System of procedures (Organization orientation)	Dedicates self to serve others
3. Decision-making authority based on expertise (Decentralized authority)	Authority based on status in hierarchy (Centralized authority)	Makes decisions based on knowledge of what is best for client
4. Autonomy (from lay control) to make decisions with respect to clients (control over work)	Behavioral rules for Incumbents to make decisions with respect to clients	Needs no supervision (self-reliant, has integrity, quality most important not financial rewards)
5. Professional Organization protect member and client interests (self-discipline)	Organization to protect employee interests	Supports and participates in professional organization
6. Orientation to professional ideals and to professional colleagues	Impersonality with respect to work	Abides by code of professional ethics: loyal to colleagues

1. The setting of the broad aims of education is the responsibility of society.
2. The choice of techniques and processes whereby the aims of education are realized in the school is the responsibility of the teaching profession (*Manual of ATA Policy*, 1967, p. 5).
3. Be it resolved, that the . . . Department of Education be requested to give consideration to increasing the flexibility of curriculum content . . . (*Manual of ATA Policy*, 1967, p. 11).
4. Be it resolved, that classroom teachers have the final voice in decision-making regarding use of educational television programs in classrooms (*ATA News*, p. 1).

The examples chosen reveal the teachers' belief that the broad general aims of education should be determined by society. However it is also evident that teachers expect to be consulted about many matters of direct and indirect concern to them. In addition they expect that certain decisions regarding content as well as methodology will be made entirely by the individual teacher. The new aggressiveness or "militancy" among teachers is sure to have some implications for the principal and decision-making in the school.

In speaking of this militancy Byrne suggests, "If this new militancy espouses the cause of full professional status for teachers, tension within school organizations may become intolerable" (Byrne, 1968, p. 9).

Byrne adds,

> The drive for professionalism will probably continue to be an increasing source of tension. The average age of Canadian teachers is lowering rapidly. This may account for many of the protests against current practice. Teachers are becoming more highly qualified. The hierarchical subordination of teachers meets less opposition from a teaching force with limited preparation. In addition, a larger proportion of those entering teaching come from the middle and upper middle classes. Studies on the behavior of these persons forecast an increased drive for full professional status (Byrne, 1968, p. 9).

Clarke reporting a recent ATA study on the profile of Alberta teachers concludes with, "Professionalism requires and demands that professionals have a voice in all decisions which determine the practice of the profession. This is what teachers are demanding" (Clarke, 1968, p. 15).

These statements by Byrne and Clarke reveal that increasing professionalization of the instructional staff will probably result in (or force?) a greater degree of colleagiality between administrators and teachers and more shared decision-making within the school. Instructional decisions will then be made mainly by the instructional staff.

Summary and Conclusion

Now to summarize what has been said. First, decision-making was defined and the levels of decision-making in Canadian education listed because these serve as situational factors within which school decisions are made. Secondly, the commonly recognized sources of authority were discussed and the importance of the authority of knowledge and skill to the practitioner were emphasized. In the last section the dual status of teachers and educational administrators as employees and professionals was explained and the potential conflict generated by this dual status discussed. Throughout the paper an attempt was made to point out implications for educational decision-making especially at the school level. I stated that there are times when the principal should make educational decisions in his school—he's being paid to make them. There are times when he should involve his staff in the decision-making and if he does not his teachers will probably insist on a greater degree of participation.

In conclusion I wish to quote a passage from a chapter on teacher effectiveness written by Bruce Biddle in 1964. This passage summarizes my feelings on decision-making in education.

> . . . Productivity, morale, and quality are likely to depend on the amount of freedom granted whether one is dealing with citizens in a community, workers in factories or teachers in schools. Teachers who are constrained in rigidly defined situations or who work in a system with inflexible, hierarchical controls will not have an opportunity for development. The school that encourages experimentation with education contexts, new approaches, new facilities, new classroom situations is likely to create an excitement for education that guarantees learning—even by the teacher. How many schools are experimenting with team teaching, television, teaching machines, classroom size, variable class lengths, supplementary training programs, seminars, new curricula in mathematics, outright discussion of racial problems, for-

eign visitors, intramural sports, new types of library facilities, and so on? (Biddle, 1964, p. 39).

Is your school among those which have experimented in these areas? If not, is it because the staff is not free to make the necessary decisions? Shared decision-making? We're stuck with it!

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EDUCATIONAL PLANNING

K. FRANCOEUR

Leadership Course for School Principals

During the gold crisis which shook the Western world earlier this year, Paul A. Samuelson, an American economist, analyzing possible solutions to that problem, made the following comment: "As has been usually the case, we shall settle for the simplest, surest measure that will permit us to carry on for another six months."[1]

Could not this short term attitude be attributed to educators as well as economists and politicians? How often is expediency used to meet our problems? To what extent are we looking ahead and, in the decisions we make today, taking account of the nature and the challenges of the society in which the children presently in our care will be living tomorrow? How much foresight and use of research findings are manifest in our attempts at improvement in curriculum, provision of physical facilities, technology in education, school organization, supply of educational personnel, the acquisition and allocation of financial resources? How deeply concerned are we with continuous or even periodical re-evaluation of objectives and assessment of means?

The pressing need for change to which we generally pay litle more than lip service has been brought home to us more clearly than ever this year. We need only to witness the quality and the number of social issues discussed in the national elections at home and abroad and the increasing political involvement of youth and young adults; the growing unrest among college and university students in all parts of the world; the less evident but still present alienation of secondary school students in our own country; the urgent demands made by teachers' organizations for better working conditions and particularly their demands for participation in policy and decision-making.

At the same time, we are forced to take cognizance of the fact that resources are limited. Governments at all levels have had to introduce austerity measures for the present fiscal year. What is the message here? Is it simply a shortage of money? Or is it not rather that the demands for public support of a greater number of social services and of improvement of existing services are increasing? What evidence and what arguments were used by governments to determine whether education was more or less important at this time than housing, health, welfare, transportation, pollution control, incentives to industry, research? What criteria were used to determine the priorities within the local or provincial educational budgets?

The orientation to be given to our educational system to adapt it to present and future needs and the allocation of adequate financial and human resources can be defined only through conscientious and serious planning. Planning is crucial not only in terms of the betterment of the services that the schools can render to society but in terms of the survival of our educational institutions themselves. Katz and Kahn argue, for example, that "any organization which does not have a four-, or five-, or ten-year plan is risking destruction or a series of continuing crises in its operations."[2]

It would be fallacious however to see planning as something that should be dissociated from crisis. As Gross points out, "the perception of imminent crisis is usually a necessary (although not sufficient) condition for the emergence of natural planning."[3] The same applies to planning at the provincial and the local levels. Plans for the provision of a sufficient number of pupil-places in high schools were developed when the post-war flood was upon us; today, we worry about provisions for higher education when it is almost too late; tomorrow, we may begin to give serious consideration to student government and student participation and, in this regard, the conference for presidents of high school councils throughout Alberta held early in July under the sponsorship of the Department of Youth is a promising development.

What, Then, Is Planning?

A most widely used definition of planning is that proposed by Dror: "Planning is a process of preparing a set of decisions for action in the future, directed at achieving goals by optimal means."[4]

Planning is a *process*, a continuous activity, as planners soon learn from practical experience. Planning is much more than having a plan. Plans are simply working documents which undergo constant revision and modification in the light of new information and feedback. In fact, in planning, 'the play's the thing' and not the script.

Planning deals with the *preparation* of a set of decisions. While planners may in practice be directly involved in the determination and implementation of policies and administrative decisions, their role consists essentially in supplying information, alternatives for action, and in providing the criteria for the implementation of these policy decisions.

Planning deals with *a set of decisions.* This is the element which distinguishes planning from decision-making. Dror states:

> While planning is a kind of decision-making, its specific characteristic in this respect is its dealing with a set of decisions, i.e. a matrix of interdependent and sequential series of systematically related decisions.[5]

For example, a plan for the introduction of a certain number of vocational options in a high school would provide guidelines and alternatives relative to the choice of options; pupil enrollment; course objectives and content; recruitment and utilization of staff; physical plant and equipment; guidance; integration of programs and personnel within the school; coordination with other schools in the local or provincial system; liaison with parents, the general public, industry, manpower services, labor groups; continuous evaluation of objectives and means; financing; stages and strategies of implementation. Of course, such a plan may be developed as a result of a policy decision to introduce vocational options; preferably, however, planning will precede any such decision and thus provide the essential criteria upon which the policy decision and the subsequent administrative decisions will be based.

Planning is *directed at action.* New knowledge, better decision-making, training in teamwork are valuable outcomes of a planning effort, but they are secondary only to the main purpose of planning which is action or execution. This particular aspect of planning is so important that it provides the key element in other definitions of planning, such as ". . . the guidance of change within a social system,"[6] or ". . . an attempt to control the future."[7] These definitions highlight the need for intervention to facilitate and accelerate the attainment of socially defined goals.

Planning is *future-oriented.* The planning process attempts to envision a possible and desirable future state and to establish the best means of achieving it. Planning however is more than distant dreaming or the creation of 'futuramas'. The establishment of long-range objectives must not blind planners and policy-makers to the needs of the needs of the present. Gross warns that:

> . . . the most strategic details are those relating to the present and short-range future. The most critical part of any plan is its link with the present . . . flexible commitment to long-range objectives are significant only because they serve as a guide to the present. This guide is particularly important when the current action may itself be a long drawn-out affair or may have serious future implications.[8]

Because of this future-orientation, good planning enables decision-makers to act more wisely and the school system to function more efefctively in everyday operations.

Planning is directed at *achieving goals.* The most important and perhaps the most difficult task faced by planners is that of translating the generally ambiguous and undefined goals of the policy-makers into operational planning objectives, and of formulating meaningful alternatives meriting their consideration. For example, the statement that schools should develop good citizenship requires a definition in terms of concrete behaviors which society considers desirable. Equal opportunity for all is another example of a nebulous goal. In a first phase, planners will want to submit to the policy-makers alternative interpretations of these goals and their implications for the school system and for society.

Finally, planning involves the search for *optimal means* of attaining the goals, that is, the minimum input of resources to achieve maximum results. In fact, optimality is an ideal. Anderson and Bowman note that:

> The search is for the best alternative that can be identified or discovered with a reasonable output of time and effort in search and comparison, but this will never be the best in any absolute, truly optimal sense.[9]

As Simon has indicated, educators can only "satisfice," not optimize.[10] I should like to suggest that we are tempted too often to use this assertion as an excuse for our shortcomings in planning as in administration generally.

Educational Planning

Educational planning can be defined by extension as the 'process of preparing a set of decisions for future action *pertaining to education*, directed at achieving goals by optimal means.'

The core components of the process have been described by Lyons, Director of Planning, the International Institute for Educational Planning, as the following:

> Diagnosis and appraisal of the existing educational system, its performance and main problems;
>
> Determination of basic policies and the setting of basic directives, priorities, and targets for their achievement including decisions on resource allocations to education and within education, in view of the need to integrate educational development with the nation's economic and social devlopment;
>
> Translation of overall targets into specific educational programs, projects and social development plans (usually five-year plans);
>
> Implementation of plans, programs and projects by action at the central, regional, and local levels, supported by annual budgets. . . . Co-operation between public and private education and attention to nonformal as well as formal education are essential to this;
>
> Evaluation and revision of plans in the light of achievements and new developments.[11]

It is always dangerous to outline components or phases of a process because it suggests an inflexibility which is irreconcilable with the concept of process itself. The planning process is more than circular: all phases are ongoing and intertwined.

Planning *per se* is not new to teachers and educational administrators. But what is the new dimension in educational planning? How does it differ from the traditional concept of planning as one phase of the administrative process, or from the type of planning carried out by consultative committees?

Modern educational planning is characterized first, by its scope—a concern with the integration or coordination of the various parts of the educational system and with the relationship of the system to the socio-economic structure of society. For example, plans are developed to ensure coordination among levels and types of education, between private and public institutions, the coordination of school services (educational, psychological, social, recreational), and of school and community services and facilities. Moreover, planners take into consideration the evolving structures and needs of society. Their approaches to planning will therefore include one or more of the following: comparisons with other countries, provinces, or districts; cultural requirements; social demands; manpower needs; rate-of-return and cost or investment analyses.

Modern educational planning is characterized also by the nature of the criteria which are used and the justification of these criteria in terms of a social philosophy and a general policy. The process, as it is carried out in Western societies, takes into account the needs of the individual in a free, post-literate and almost post-industrial state as well as the needs of society in terms of human resources. It also gives serious attention to the problem of allocating limited financial resources for education in competition with other social institutions.

A third characteristic of modern educational planning is a more rigorous approach to and use of techniques and procedures of communication and analysis. For example, operations research, mathematical programming, data-processing, program-budgeting, projection and forecasting are some of the everyday tools being used by planners.

Development of National Educational Planning

National educational planning is a recent phenomenon. Until the 1960's, special government agencies for educational planning were found in only a few countries in the Western world (Sweden, Norway, France, the Netherlands). In 1961, the OECD (Organization for Economic and Cooperative Development) launched the 'Mediterranean Regional Project' (MRP) which involved the establishment of national educational planning teams in Turkey, Greece, Yugoslavia, Italy, Spain, and Portugal. The MRP was followed by the program on Educational Investment and Planning (EIP) of which the Netherlands, Sweden, Norway, Denmark, France, Belgium, Austria, West Germany, Ireland, England and Iceland are members. The United States, Canada and Switzerland participate in the program, although the governmental system in these countries does not permit the establishment of central planning agencies.[12]

Unesco has also established several planning agencies concerned with helping countries, especially the underdeveloped ones, in

actual planning. In 1963, the International Institute for Educational Planning was created by Unesco in cooperation with the World Bank, the Ford Foundation and the French government. Through research, by means of publications and the organization of ten-month internship programmes as well as workshops, conferences and seminars, the Institute responds to a worldwide need for better knowledge and more experts in this field.

While the OECD, Unesco and other international organizations have contributed greatly to the rapid development of educational planning, the source of this development is found primarily in an awareness of changing social conditions and of the need for guidance of change.

The impact of technological change on the economy, particularly on the demand for qualified manpower, the economic objective of optimal development of human resources, the social-political demand for access to higher levels of education, the growing expectations placed upon the school as an agent of social change, cannot be overlooked nor can they be met with *ad hoc*, short-range decisions. Eide relates the increased emphasis on educational planning to three main trends in modern societies:

> . . . (a) the need for a more rapid adaptation of government policies to changing conditions; (b) the demand for greater coherence in the formulation of government policies and (c) increased use of research as an instrument towards more rational government policies.[13]

The adaptation and coordination of government policies imply major decisions concerning the allocation of resources to education as opposed to other sectors of public activity, and the optimal use of the resources for the achievement of maximum educational results, both qualitatively and quantitatively. Educational planning introduces rationality in these decisions.

Educational Planning in Canada

In our own country, interest in educational planning has grown noticeably in recent years.

Only four years ago, the Dominion Bureau of Statistics conducted a survey of educational planning by provinces, cities and universities. The survey was limited to plans which covered two or more years and was concerned with projections of pupil enrollments, of teacher needs, of schools and school facilities, of expenditures and plans relating changes in education to manpower needs. The report states that:

> Awareness that the situation has changed so radically that the old measures will not suffice is acknowledged by department officials, school boards and teachers, but there is no concerted plan of action in most provinces, although each is attacking some of the immediate problems in its own way.[11]

Since then, Canada has witnessed the creation of educational planning units in a few universities, provincial departments of education and urban centers, the establishment of at least one programme for the training of educational planners, and the organization of national and regional conferences and workshops on the subject. Our federal system of government and the provisions of the BNA Act are not conducive to the establishment of a national agency concerned with educational planning. The recently created Conference of Ministers of Education may however become a focal point where national objectives are discussed and agreed upon and where provincial plans are coordinated. Already, the Dominion Bureau of Statistics, the Economic Council of Canada, the Canadian Education Association, the Canadian Association for Adult Education, the Department of Manpower and Immigration, have provided useful data for local and provincial planners and, in many instances, leadership in the consideration of problems of national interest.

Educational Planning at the Provincial Level

It is generally agreed that to be effective, educational planning must be carried out at the highest level of government. (In the Canadian context, educational planning is properly a function of provincial governments.) Indeed, the need for vast resources of information and expertise, for the integration of plans for education with plans for overall social and economic development, for the coordination of all elements of the educational system justify central planning.

It is interesting to note that the ATA Long-Range Planning Committee on Organization and Administration of Schools, in a recently published position paper, states that:

> Leadership in educational planning is one area in which the Department of Education ought to be extensively involved. A general design for making

school programs more effective and efficient could be planned provincially. . . . A provincial division of educational planning should identify current and future educational problems, collect research evidence which bears on these problems, and suggest possible courses of action.

Functions of the Department of Education should aim at increasing the emphasis on service and leadership and decreasing the emphasis on regulation and control.[15]

In a similar vein, a few months ago, one minister of education had this to say about the role of the modern state:

> The modern state will tend to centralize the definition of objectives and the making of fundamental decisions. However, it will decentralize administration and ordinary decisions. Far from resembling the traditional image of bureaucracy, the modern government must become *a focus of research and planning* which will leave to local communities, private or public corporations, school boards and educational networks, in short to all organizations forming the basis and representing the very essence of a nation, *the responsibility of administering and of taking decisions freely on novel individual situations, under the guidelines* of *general and comprehensive policies.*[16] (*Underlining mine*)

We could debate at length the question of what constitutes centralized or decentralized decision-making and administration, or 'a general design for making school programs more effective and efficient,' but we shall never find a definitive answer. The way in which the planning process is carried out, the scope and comprehensiveness of the plans, and the degree of decentralization of the planning function will be determined in each province by the existing legislation, the influence of the leaders of the educational community, the degree of public interest and participation, the general political climate and the free play of the democratic process.

Educational planners, as we have seen, are concerned with the determination of educational objectives, with the establishment of priorities and the balancing of resources among competing objectives, and with the designing of alternative means of attaining the objectives.

Operationally, this means that educational planners are interested in the internal efficiency or the productivity of the system, i.e., the optimal allocation of resources, human, intellectual and material, the administrative structures of the system, the organization of the schools, the coordination between various levels of education and among the different types of educational institutions, the organization of auxiliary services and their coordination with community services of a similar nature.

Educational planners are also concerned with the external efficiency of the system or its adaptation to social needs and objectives. In this regard, they will attempt to evaluate the appropriateness of the curriculum and the instructional program to the needs of the individual, the society and the economy. They will assess also the capacity of the system to respond to social demand for access to a diversity of programs and to higher levels of education.

Finally, educational planners give consideration to the ability of individuals who have gone through the system to adapt to technological, political and cultural changes in the world of labor and in society generally; hence their concern with the need for continuing education. It might be *à propos* at this point to suggest that more intellectual and financial resources should be devoted to adult education. Is it not possible that by investing most of our resources in the young generations and neglecting the older ones, an unbalanced society is created in which, as a result, the young people will be unable to play a fully effective role? The gap must be bridged somehow.

It is clear that the planning function cannot be the responsibility of one man, no more than it can be the sole responsibility of one unit or one department. However, according to Lyons, "Any serious attempt at educational planning requires the establishment of a full-time planning unit . . . staffed by personnel for whom planning is recognized as a career, a full-time job." The director of the unit should be ". . . a generalist who knows both the technical-theoretical aspects, and is capable of orchestrating the work of the unit and harmonizing it with others." The personnel should include educational specialists, a statistician, a demographer, an economist, and an architect or an engineer. Moreover, "If planning is to be successful, it is not enough to have a group of specialists working at it; everyone in the educational system must become planning minded."[17]

In educational planning at the provincial level, the minister of education and ultimately the cabinet or the legislature will

make the final decisions. A senior departmental official, likely the deputy-minister, will oversee the work of the planning unit and facilitate coordination between the unit and the other branches of the Department of Education, with research organizations, as well as with the planning units in other sectors of governmental activity. An important concern of this official will be to create among the personnel of the Department and among the educational administrators and the teachers at the local level a sense of responsibility for the plan. Hence, the success of the program will depend upon the availibility and use of resources, human and material, of information, of methods, procedures and techniques.

Among the conditions for success closely related to the elaboration of the plan, prime importance must be given to knowledge of the general background against which planning takes place. The planners and educational administrators involved in this phase should be aware of the social, political, economic, and even geographic environment. A most valuable means of ensuring this awareness and the success of educational planning is to provide for consultation and participation of as many individuals and groups as possible within the Department of Education, the total educational system, and the society at large. The difficulties involved in establishing adequate mechanisms for participation and in promoting quality in the dialogue have been recognized by educational planners. But in spite of these difficulties, the contributions of participation toward the creation of the critical minimum of consensus concerning the ends and means necessary for the adoption and implementation of the plans, toward their continuous revision or adjustment to meet new demands, are so valuable that educational planners persist in their efforts to ensure that participation and consultation become as meaningful and widespread as possible.

The approval or adoption of a plan by the legal authorities (Legislature, school boards) represents the culmination of a long series of adjustments and compromises, and constitutes the major act by which educational policies are not only defined in themselves but also become part of and coordinated with the general policies of the government. The success of this phase of the total process will depend largely on such factors as the extent to which planners and educational administrators have been able to perceive the wishes and needs of the people; the role which the politicians, interest groups and individuals have been allowed to play in the elaboration of the plan; their sense of timing; and especially, their ability to present the information in support of the plan in terms which the layman can understand.[18]

On the last point, William McCordic, in the *Manitoba Teacher*, gives the following advice:

> It is a political axiom that if you want to ensure support for a proposal you must keep it simple. It is not too difficult to win support for motherhood, free education or increased leisure; it is when you develop the details of a plan that people begin to have reservations about it.[19]

Success in the implementation of the plan will lie primarily in the degree and quality of the participation which occurred in the earlier phases of elaboration and approval. Huefner, Ohio State Planning Coordinator, issues a serious warning against central planning exclusive of participation of the implementors. He argues that:

> . . . it is unrealistic to expect a central staff to match the specialized knowledge of the various program staffs. . . . program staffs cannot be expected to properly implement a plan which they do not understand and appreciate. . . . Because involvement leads to commitment, agency understanding and appreciation of the plan depends upon participation in the preparation of the plan and on the compromises which are necessary between competing interests.[20]

Success will lie also in the extent of delegation of powers to regional and local authorities, in the provisions for feedback, and in the mechanisms established for continuous revision and improvement of the plan, such as the annual budget. But it must not be overlooked that a plan must also be made to work. If educational planning is required for the adaptation of our educational systems to modern society, then there is a responsibility to be assumed for the implementation of the plans, and educational administrators and planners should strive to develop adequate knowledge and skill in the use of strategies and techniques for bringing about the desired changes.[21]

Educational Planning at the Local Level

It should not be inferred from the previous discussion that all educational planning can or should be concentrated at the provincial level. In fact, it has been sug-

gested that the state must allow for local initiative 'under the guidelines of general and comprehensive policies,' and that the success of provincial planning depends in part on the degree of delegation of powers to regional and local authorities.

The problems which are of concern to educational planners at the provincial level are also of immediate concern to school boards, administrators and teachers at the local level, although on a smaller scale. The interpretation of these problems in the light of local conditions, the search for solutions in response to local needs, the adaptation of provincial plans to the particular social and geographic environment, can only be done at that level. Hence, planning remains an essential function in the administration of a local system and of a school.[22]

The same principles that apply to national or provincial planning should govern local educational planning: an orientation to the future, a view of education in relation to social, political and economic realities, a consideration of the system as a set of interrelated elements, involvement of experts, faith in consultation and participation, not only of professional educators but also of the community to which the school belongs and which it is designed to serve.

Who will assume the responsibility for planning? Within the constraints of provincial regulations and practices and of a provincial plan or the lack of one, the school board and the superintendent are responsible for the establishment of broad policy and for decision-making relating to objectives, priorities, projects and the general operation of the system. But planning requires time, information resources and competence. Can the superintendent, even with the help of his staff as presently constituted in most systems and of the body of principals and teachers, reasonably be expected to cope with the continuous demands of the planning function as described in this paper? School boards would likely find it advantageous to attach to the superintendent's office a planning officer or even a planning division. Where size and financial resources are limited, several school boards might wish to establish a planning division as a joint service.

The assignment to one person or one unit of the major responsibility for planning can have valuable consequences for a system, in addition to introducing more rationality in the administrative process. First, the planning unit fufills an important role as a change agent: the absence of such an agent is recognized as a basic cause of the slow rate of change in schools.[23] Secondly, the existence of the planning unit allows the superintendent to assume his role as process initiator and mediator; that is, to serve as facilitator and catalyst.[24] These outcomes seem particularly worthwhile at a period when 'innovation' is in fashion.

Where Does the Principal Fit In?

Whatever the nature and quality of the plan for the betterment of education, of the design 'for making schools and school programs more effective and more efficient,' ultimately it is within the schools themselves that reforms, innovations, and improvements take place. The teachers and the principals are 'where the action is' and where it should be.

The role of the principal is the subject of much debate and often the focus of conflicting views. The expectations placed upon him can be overwhelming. Witness this list of tasks outlines in a recent NASSP Bulletin by an acting principal:

1. He will spend much of his time on the improvement of instruction. . . .
2. The principal will become directly involved with the instructional needs of individual students as he daily observes them in the classroom and the general school milieu. . . .
3. Responsibility for the development of program will devolve directly on the shoulders of the principal. . . .
4. . . . the principal will undertake to keep all members of his staff professionally piqued, alert, and informed. . . .
5. The principal will give much attention to developing and enhancing a multifaceted staff within the school. . . .
6. The principal who visualizes his position as one of leadership will have to stand forth as the spokesman for the school. . . .
7. . . . he will be the guardian (of the school's philosophy). It will be his task to make certain that the philosophy coheres with the major aspirations of the district itself. . . .
8. The principal aspiring to a leadership role will have to crash through the Chinese wall of isolation surrounding his school. . . .
9. Lastly, the principal will have to sustain the morale of the staff in weal and in woe.[25]

Of course, the size of the school, its geographic location, the social character of the community, the teaching load of the principal, his degree of competence, will help to shape his role. But whether there are two hundred or two thousand pupils in the school, whether it is located in the far north or in the center of a city, in an exclusive suburb or in a labor or a farm district, the children and their parents have a right to the best education society can provide, and the teachers are entitled to the opportunity to exercise fully their professional rights and responsibilities. The planning process is one means of ensuring the fulfillment of these rights and opportunities.

In relation then to provincial and local educational planning which defines the general orientation of the schools and the school programs, the principal will attempt to participate in the planning process either directly or through his professional association. He will want to become familiar with the vocabularies of the experts and to have some knowledge, not so much of the intricacies of the methods and techniques of planning, as of their general meaning and implications.

The question which educational planners ask about the local or provincial system, he will ask about his own school. Is it serving the needs of all the children in the community? What happens to the pupils once they have left his school? Under what conditions do they leave? Could new programmes be developed? Are the parents interested and involved in the school and its activities? Is the school administered efficiently? Is optimal use made of resources: personnel, instructional materials, facilities, time, etc.?

The principal will be responsible for planning for change and improvement in his own school. The changes may be related to the organization of instruction: continuous progress, team teaching, flexible scheduling; to the guidance program and the system of home-reporting; to methods and criteria of pupil evaluation; to the development of an instructional materials center; to teaching methods and techniques; to the extra-curricular program; to community relations; to in-service activities for staff.

The introduction of change in a school requires first, the existence of a climate, a readiness for change, Secondary, it requires planning. Consequently, in order to create the necessary climate, the principal will involve his staff in the identification of the problems or the areas of needed improvement, and in the elaboration of the plans. Because a school is a system and, therefore, no unit or aspect of school life can be considered in isolation, he will provide opportunities for all members of the staff to participate.

In the development of the plan, he will facilitate recourse to experts. He will ensure that the plan anticipates not only the introduction of the change but also its development, and that it provides for evaluation and readjustment. The plan will include as well an analysis of the implications of the proposal over time, implications for personnel, the organization of the school, its climate, materials, costs, and so on. Because these implications eventually find expression in the school budget, the plan should be developed a year or more in advance of its implementation.

Throughout, the principal will be working in close cooperation with the superintendent, the school board and the public. Sensitivity to feedback and skill in 'salesmanship' are qualities which he must value and foster.

At a time when everyone calls for needed changes in the schools, the role of the principal appears to be a crucial one. Some of the changes will be proposed by the public, some by the Department of Education, others by the staff, the superintendent and the school board. How will the principal react to these proposals: as a squasher? as a follower? or as a facilitator and a leader?

Conclusion

An attempt has been made in this paper to describe a new development in the world of education. Modern educational planning has become a necessity in the face of the tremendous growth of education as an institution, the demands placed upon it, and the huge resources which it engulfs. Educators at all levels of the system need to be familiar with the process and its implications. Should planning arouse fear of loss of freedom, then a solution lies in informed participation.

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ORGANIZATION OF CHANGING SCHOOL SYSTEMS

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As educational programs change and teaching staffs increase, school systems face problems requiring reorganization of their administrative structure, role relationships, and decision-making responsibilities. In this paper, some of these organizational problems and suggested solutions identified in various formal research studies, as well as in personal observation, are discussed. Some of the ideas to be presented have been collected from many sources in Canada and Australia, so few acknowledgements shall be made.

Today's topic is listed as "organization." Logically this aspect of the administrative process follows goal setting and planning, but precedes coordination and communication activities. The term "organizing" is used in the sense of "making functional" or "arranging the organizational structure." It can be thought of as describing the making of arrangements for staffing, plant, equipment and finance. But the emphasis chosen for this paper is more upon the organization of school systems such as school districts, divisions and counties. In a sense the content could be said to relate largely to "organizing the organization." In this connection, "organization" refers to the relationships among people in the same social system.

Although most of the statements apply more to larger school systems, their consideration may lead to a better understanding of the problems of change and to a reduction in the unwanted and unanticipated consequences which occur in all school systems no matter what the size.

At this stage it is useful to introduce Leavitt's proposition that the four clusters of industrial variables related to task, structure, technological and human categories are highly interdependent.[1] Leavitt feels that a change in any one of these categories will usually result in compensatory or retaliatory changes in the other three categories. Therefore the major approaches to organizational change are seen as involving structure, technology or people. For example, changes towards either greater centralization or decentralization can change the appropriate technology being employed (e.g. computers) and people's attitudes. Similarly, the introduction of computers as new tools can produce changes in organizational structure (decisions, communication, use of specialists), changes in people (numbers, skills, attitudes, activities), and even the actual task. This hypothesis would appear to be equally applicable to the educational setting.

The term "program development" is taken to refer to those activities which affect what is taught and the manner in which the content is taught. "Program" is used as a more embracing term than "course of studies."

To understand the ways in which an organization functions, it is necessary to go beyond formal job descriptions and organization charts. Consequently, one main emphasis of this discussion concerns the role perceptions of various educational officers.

Categories of Organizational Problems Encountered by School Systems

The problems encountered in school systems seem to fall into two main categories based on the causes assumed to be primarily responsible.

CATEGORY 1. Problems of expanding organizations subjected to both internal and external pressures.

Problem 1.1 How is an effective organizational structure designed for an expanding school system?

Problem 1.2 How are role expectations made clear to incumbents at all organizational levels?

Problem 1.3 How are channels for effective vertical and horizontal communication established and maintained?

CATEGORY 2. Problems of school systems subjected to pressures of changing programs and personnel.

Problem 2.1 How should the responsibilities for decision-making be allocated to encourage optimum program development?

Problem 2.2 How can appropriate strategies for improving the instructional program be identified and used?

Problem 2.3 How can the functions of supervision and evaluation of teachers be best approached?

Such problems do not have simple solutions. The unique aspects of each school system require that unique solutions must frequently be devised. Nevertheless, some common approaches might be considered. The remainder of this paper contains suggestions which appear to be potential solutions generally applicable to some of the identified problems.

Problem 1.1

How is an Effective Organizational Structure Designed for an Expanding School System?

It is proposed that well-designed administrative organizations can be useful in achieving the purposes of school systems. Administrative officers, however, are an overhead cost to education, and additional appointments should be examined on a cost-benefit basis.

Obviously it is insufficient merely to develop an organizational structure which looks adequate when presented in chart form. An effective organizational structure also requires that reasonably clear and congruent role perceptions of the tasks of various personnel must be held. In several school systems which have been formally studied such was not the case. Problems in role perceptions seem to exist in areas such as the following: Who should be responsible for staff development and who for content development? Who should be responsible for the introduction of various kinds of innovations? Which central offices are line rather than staff positions? Which officers should formally evaluate teachers when this is necessary?

Some of these problems are directly attributable to system growth. For example, in small systems the central office staff are mainly generalists in that they personally attend to many tasks: this conception of the role may persist to some extent during growth of the system and subsequent promotion of the central office staff. Possibly some personnel do not recognize that decision-making functions can be delegated while still maintaining effective overall control of and responsibility for the organization.

The suggestions relevant to this general problem area are: (1) examination of the formal structure and procedures to ensure that they are adequate; and (2) clear identification and delimitation of the functions to be performed by the holders of various staff positions. This might involve directors in overall planning, supervisors, consultants and principals more in staff development, and specialists and department heads more in program development activities related to content and methods.

It is frequently contended, sometimes in jest, that the proportion of administrative staff in an organization increases as the organization grows. This can be seen as an extension to Parkinson's Law. Because administration is an overhead expense in education, the contention requires careful investigation. Fortunately, it is refuted by some recent studies. In one of these, Gill studied thirty-eight of the larger urban school systems in the four western Canadian provinces.[2] He considered the size of the system to be best represented by the combined number of educational staff in the schools together with the educational staff and administrators in the central office. Although differences in titles presented some difficulties in assessing which officers were equivalent in different school systems, Gill managed to identify various categories of educational administrators whose function was facilitation of instructional program.

In these systems, all of which could appoint their own staffs with a reasonable degree of freedom, Gill found that a negative correlation existed between the size of the administrative component and the size of the school system. This coorrelation coefficient was significant at better than the .001 level, showing that for these thirty-eight systems, the larger organizations tended to have proportionately smaller numbers of supervisors. Small systems with 47 to 248 educators and administrators had a mean administrative component comprising 10.7 per cent of all such staff. Medium-sized school systems (252-761 staff) had 8.6 per cent, and large systems (1026-3099 staff) had 6.7 per cent.

Obviously it is difficult to prescribe the numbers and types of educational staff which different educational systems require. The differing features of the systems militate against such prescription. However, Gill did note that systems of the same size tended to have similar numbers and types of supervisors.

Problem 1.2

How Are Role Expectations Made Clear to Incumbents at All Organizational Levels?

Most organizations encourage a degree of task flexibility based upon individual competence and interests. This bending of the office to the person, and not the person to the office, is generally assessed to be desirable. However, it can lead to individuals in similar positions holding differing perceptions of their own role and of the roles of others. Other factors also contribute to differences in role perception—chief among these possibly are the involvement of changes in positions and titles without major changes in activities, and general uncertainty about particular roles such as that of the principal.

It seems that specific expectations associated with various positions could be developed to a greater extent than pertains at present in many educational systems. This is being done in several areas where principals, even of quite small schools, are being relieved of the business aspects of school operation and consequently are able to concentrate more upon educational matters. This does not mean that all positions carrying the same title would be occupied by personnel who perform exactly the same function. It does mean that after agreement has been reached upon the tasks to be performed by a particular person, that this information is conveyed to other involved persons.

However, it is not sufficient merely to state what functions are associated with particular positions—these role conceptions must be clarified by methods employing personal involvement such as seminars and meetings of persons whose functions are related. Possibly it is necessary to hold such seminars several times in the first two months of each school year because of staff changes and evaluation of prior practices. Some school systems have found it useful to hold such meetings in settings away from the school district, so that personnel are not distracted by daily administrative matters.

Problem 1.3

How are Channels for Effective Vertical and Horizontal Communication Established and Maintained?

Arrangement of the organizational structure also includes establishment of channels of communication. The channels needed are (1) vertical, that is between people of different rank such as superintendent to principal, and (2) horizontal, that is between people of the same rank or function such as principal to principal. A great deal of the communication within organizations is on an informal person-to-person basis. Frequently this may appear to be adequate. Nevertheless, it does seem that certain measures could often be taken to improve the effectiveness of communication, not only of factual information but also of suggestions and evaluations.

The observed infrequency of communication among people performing similar tasks within an organization may reflect greater concern with job performance than with evaluation. Vertical departmentalization tends to restrict horizontal communication. It may be desirable to formally provide greater opportunity for communication among specialists in, for example, audio-visual equipment, mathematics and science. Orientation procedures might include attempts to familiarize staff with communication channels and procedures. Again, seminars might be more effective in this regard than written bulletins, particularly if personnel are involved in the planning of the ways in which formal communication will occur.

One specific problem involves the functions of the principal in communication between the school and people outside the school. Should the principal serve as the interaction focus for all communications between teachers and central office supervisors? Or should the teachers be able to communicate directly with central office supervisors without informing the principal? Such questions bear directly upon the role of the principal in program development, and upon the professional autonomy of teachers.

Problem 2.1

How Should the Responsibilities for Decision-Making Be Allocated to Encourage Optimum Program Development?

Some of the uncertainty about the responsibilities of various levels of personnel in program decision-making may result from differing conceptions of what constitutes "professional behavior." The opinion is expressed frequently that "professional behavior" implies autonomy in classroom matters: consequently, little need is seen to exist for coordination of the efforts of individual teachers. But the question must be asked: Is not such coordination one of the essentials of the behavior of professionals

working in groups? And if this is the case, should it be extended to attempts at coordination of all educational staff in decision-making related to both policy and practice?

Despite such desirable cooperative involvement, some criteria for allocating decision-making responsibility should be developed in any school system or this function floats in a vacuum. One area in which responsibility has to be allocated is the assignment of staff to schools. Some school systems empower principals to employ their teachers, but most consider this to be a function of central office staff. The issue seems to be to what extent principals are to be involved rather than whether or not they should be. A similar question concerns the extent to which principals should be involved in initiation of new aspects of the school program.

One area of concern to principals is their relationship to external guidance officers in decisions involving pupils who require the attention of these specialists. Traditionally, the principal as an educational generalist has tended to make most of the decisions for such pupils. Now, however, the complaint is commonly heard that the guidance officers are moving from a staff role of investigation and advice to a line role of making and implementing decisions. This is frequently done with little or no consultation with the principal, who still perceives himself as being responsible for all decisions concerning the education of pupils in his school. Perhaps this affords one more example of the increasing role of specialists in decision-making, a fact which has been commented upon especially by some students of industrial organizations.

This issue also leads to consideration of the extent to which decision-making authority should be vested in central office personnel rather than in school personnel. In which areas should school personnel have a large measure of freedom in making decisions? Is this freedom hampered by acts of supervisory personnel who desire greater coordination? For example, the conducting of system-wide examinations may be an attempt at coordination or equalization, but may have the unwanted effect of considerable reduction in local freedom which may be necessary where much variation in schools exists, as in the larger cities.

Problem 2.2

How Can Appropriate Strategies for Improving the Instructional Program Be Identified and Used?

A considerable proportion of teachers express the view that they alone should decide what is taught and what methods are used in their individual classrooms—in fact some teachers see this as the professional approach. To some observers it seems almost as if teachers regard their classrooms as "territories" in the sense in which this term is used by Ardrey in his recent book, *The Territorial Imperative*.[3] This isolated classroom approach can lead to some undesirable results, and to break it down the suggestion has been made that the school rather than the classroom could be recognized as the basic instructional unit.

Consequently, program development should involve all teachers and all subjects within the school in a cooperative endeavor. This does not necessarily imply team teaching, but it does suggest a much greater amount of discussion about programs than usually occurs in staff meetings. Greater exposure to planning and discussion of educational programs may lead teachers to feel that they are personally responsible for adoption or even initiation of innovations, rather than waiting, as so many appear to do, for directives authorizing changes in the more traditional approaches.

Further to this, the conception of many elementary teachers that they are teachers of say Grade Two children, rather than teachers whose special interests or abilities lie more in certain subject areas, may be a serious hindrance to cooperation, coordination, and innovation. In stating this the intent is not to deny that children at different age levels require teachers of special knowledge and skill, but rather to point out that the "grade approach" in elementary education can present some serious problems in role relationships in an educational organization.

Another suggestion, which has been adopted by some districts, is that of decentralization of consultants, that is, of people whose specialty is providing help in methods or content to other teachers. Location of consultants in a central office in a large system presents problems of communication, accessibility and travel. Some of these problems may be solved by the appointment of area subject consultants, who possibly teach only half-time and who could be department heads in their own schools. But it must be emphasized that their function would be one of giving advice and help when these are requested by teachers, or when such assistance seems to be desirable. In other words, their function would

not in any way include formal evaluation of teachers.

The organizational of a team of such consultants could provide financial and status recognition for expert teachers who possess superior knowledge and human relations skills but wish to remain in the classroom rather than become administrators. Previously, the career paths of teachers have involved promotion from the classroom into administrative positions either in the central office or in a school. As Jacques Barzun of Columbia University has said in his criticism of some American universities, "The highest prize of the teaching profession is: no teaching."[1] This seems to be equally applicable still to most elementary and secondary schools, so an alternative career path as teaching consultant is proposed. The possibility would exist that the pay of the consultant could be comparable to that of the principals in the system.

In order to help solve some of the problems encountered by many elementary teachers faced with new subject content, and to reduce the work load of consultants, it appears that some provision should be made in many school systems for increased subject specialization, particularly in Grades 4, 5 and 6. Although this is commonly done for music and physical education, the new needs of subjects such as art, French, mathematics and science suggest that some extension of elementary school specialization is due. This would not mean rigid departmentalization as is known in some secondary schools, nor would it mean that elementary children are exposed to a different teacher for each different subject. Increased elementary specialization is possible along with the retention of a home room teacher who would have the major responsibility for teaching and coordinating a group of students. Occasionally the suggestion has been made that this procedure may attract a higher percentage of men into elementary school teaching.

Problem 2.3

How Can the Functions of Supervision and Evaluation of Teachers Be Best Approached?

One of the most serious differences in expectations among educators occurs in the area of teacher supervision. It is well known that teachers commonly disapprove of the evaluating and visiting practices of some supervisors—this is by no means peculiarly a Canadian problem. To compound the problem, teachers are often uncertain about the purposes of teacher evaluation or the purposes of visits of supervisors to their classrooms. To help overcome these and related problems the following three suggestions are made: (1) supervisors could develop a problem-oriented rather than a person-oriented approach; (2) supervisory visits could be differentiated by purpose, whether this be for certification, annual report, or promotion, etc.; (3) teachers could be better informed about the bases upon which promotion decisions are made.

Further, increasing use of programs of self-evaluation, together with greater focus upon assessment of the total instructional program offered by each school, might help to decrease the emphasis upon evaluation of individual teachers. Central office specialists could be used primarily as resource personnel who can assist groups of teachers achieve their goals, rather than as formal evaluators of individual teacher performance. For example, when junior high school science teachers are discussing the planning of the work of the coming school year, or a problem during the year, or even assessing the work of the previous year, they should feel free to invite a specialist from the central office to join in the session. Such procedures could help to overcome the feeling held by some teachers and principals that supervisors are "outsiders" or "intruders." System theory helps us to understand why such a perception is held, but increased participation by supervisors in planning and discussion may help to overcome the feeling that each school is self-sufficient.

Even when assessment for certification is required, it does seem that a new teacher should receive as much assistance as he needs in orientation and consultation prior to the formal assessment. Two topics for discussion come out of this point of view. One concerns the possibility that different personnel perform the different functions of formal evaluation and consultation. The other is that school systems should possibly examine the feasibility of longer periods of internship of new teachers, more in keeping with those of other occupations which are rated as professions or near-professions. Under an internship period lasting for one year, a new teacher would have limited teaching responsibility. With expert advice from practising teachers, and possibly continuing assistance from university personnel, the transition from student to teacher could probably be more effectively made than it is at present. Of course, role ex-

pectations and certain tasks would be altered, requiring some major changes in the organizational structure.

Assessment by Bidwell

Bidwell has recently reviewed the literature which examines schools as organizations.[5] This summary provides a different method of examination of school systems than does the problem approach which has been already outlined. Initially Bidwell notes four significant organizational attributes of school systems: (1) students involuntarily enter school; (2) teachers contractually enter school systems; (3) a combination of bureaucracy and structural looseness exists; and (4) school officers have a dual responsibility to the public and to fellow educators.

Two major functional problems faced by school systems are identified. The first of these involves the internal coordination of classes to ensure articulation of courses and reasonable uniformity of pupil output. The second concerns the provision of sufficient latitude to allow for professional judgment in matters of educational outcomes and methods. Bidwell observes that the tendency toward debureaucratization can produce conflict between functional authority based on expertise and legal criteria. He raises the possibility of professional staff operating as a "company of equals" in which official superordination is replaced by "senior colleague status."

The distinctive structural arrangements of school systems are seen to be an adaptation "to exigencies of coordination." Socialization of pupils requires considerable teacher-student activity leading to autonomy of the classrooms. Bidwell feels that this relative school autonomy can help in coordination, at least within each school, as the principal can partially control the constitution of his faculty. Interschool coordination still remains a problem.

Human Needs

Along with discussion of our ideas of cooperation among educators and coordination of schools, it is of interest to examine what is known about human needs and need-satisfying behavior. An assessment of studies of animal and human behavior has led Ardrey to conclude that our three main needs are, in order, identity, stimulation, security. In this regard he disagrees partially with Maslow. But Ardrey is in accord with Lorenz, who postulates that human aggression is healthy, necessary, innate and ineradicable. Ardrey develops his thesis further by explaining how aggression and territoriality can satisfy the three basic needs. As this is a new and controversial scientific field, it must suffice at present to say that some doubt can be placed upon the willingness of individuals to cooperate under certain conditions.

Summary

The emphasis throughout this discussion has been upon "organization" as meaning a set of relationships among people. It is a relatively simple task to formulate an ideal type of formal school system structure based upon the concepts of line and staff, span of control, and unit control. We could list the positions of superintendent, assistant superintendents, directors, supervisors, specialists, etc., allot them certain tasks and authority over certain other positions, but this alone would ignore the personal qualities of occupiers of these positions.

It should also be borne in mind that organizational charts need constant review. Leavitt's idea reminds us that changes in task, technology and people variables usually require a change in organization. An examination of some of the suggestions offered in this paper shows that they can be considered as compensatory changes.

To recapitulate, some of the suggestions which seem pertinent in discussion of the organization of school systems included the following:

1. Development of the clearest possible role perceptions through planning and evaluation seminars.
2. Greater emphasis upon horizontal communication.
3. Re-examination of the relationship of principals and specialist supervisors.
4. Consideration of the school, rather than the classroom, as the basic instructional unit.
5. Increased cooperation of central office staff with teachers in planning and evaluation.
6. Possible delay in the formal assessment of new teachers, accompanied by a longer period of internship.
7. Provision of a new career path in education as teaching consultants.
8. Increased specialization of teachers in elementary schools.

It is proposed that some educational systems should experiment on a limited basis with

some of these suggestions. Education has probably been rather slow to implement, or even test, ideas which involve changes in traditional administrative structures. The types of "human engineering" which are proposed above, if implemented, do not appear to pose danger to either students or educators.

Throughout the discussion of the organizational problems covered in this paper, conflict about the role of the principal has appeared. Probably we should view the principal not as a generalist, as has been the vogue, but rather as a specialist in administration who makes or approves decisions based on the best available information or opinion. He could thus be described more as an "instructional facilitator" rather than as an "instructional leader." This would mean that the principal is more concerned with the organization of program development than with its content: a teacher who prefers classroom work should not accept an administrative position. Hopefully, expanding school systems can find methods to reward their better teachers while allowing them to remain in a predominantly teaching situation.

Conclusion

In conclusion it can possibly be suggested that a certain repetitiveness occurs in the task of organizing. The allocation of decision-making responsibilities involves decisions about who should make decisions in particular areas. Similarly, when organizing the formal organization of a school system, all the steps of planning, organizing, communicating, coordinating and evaluating are repeatedly involved in this one complex process, just as they are in each other process. It is therefore no surprise that, whereas the processes of administration are to a casual observer reasonably simple, to a practitioner or student of administration they can be inordinately complex. Perhaps ideas such as that proposed by Leavitt and the presented categorization of problems can assist in reducing our perceptions of this complexity.

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THE ADMINISTRATOR AS COORDINATOR

C. S. BUMBARGER

INTRODUCTION

Administration is a complex activity. It occurs in a wide range of settings and in organizations with a great diversity of goals. It is the fact of the existence of organizations — structured arrangements designed for harmonizing the efforts of many—that creates a need for administrative activity. While the kinds of tasks performed and the processes employed by the administrator may be substantially the same in any organization, the *manner* in which he works to discharge his duties is at least partially a function of the nature of the particular organization in which he performs. Thus the organization itself, and the environment within which it exists, are significant in molding administrative behavior.

Background

For many years, scholars have been engaged in the study of administration in an attempt to better understand and describe the activity. The very complexity of administration, stemming at least in part from its responsiveness to organizational and environmental factors, has rendered such study difficult. Thus far there exists no generally-accepted comprehensive theory of administration capable of both adequately describing all such activity and accurately predicting the results of specific administrative behavior in particular settings.

The problem is similar to problems encountered in other fields. For example, medical researchers have struggled for years with the notion of viruses. It was originally only a conceptualization since a virus could not be seen or felt, although the effects of its presence could be observed. Improved tools have allowed progress to be made in isolating, examining and testing various kinds of viruses. Medical researchers would, however, say that there still remains much to be learned.

My purpose is not to suggest that administration is akin to a virus, although some have stated that it "gets in your blood." Rather it is to point out that in the study of any complex phenomenon advance is slow, the growth of knowledge is incremental and progress is halting at best.

Since administration is complex, attempts have been made to isolate parts of it for study. Other attempts have been made to simplify its study by developing various conceptualizations or ways to view administration. When this is done it then becomes possible to focus upon only one aspect or facet instead of the total activity. These formulations have proven useful in generating new ideas as well as adding to knowledge about administration.

One of these approaches to the reduction of the task is that of conceiving of administration as a process consisting of a number of identifiable component processes. This allows these processes to then be separated and viewed individually for purposes of analysis and discussion. It is well to remember that this is an artificial situation since, in the real world, the processes do not occur as separate readily-discernible entities. They are actually almost inseparably intertwined and interwoven. It is in this real state that they constitute the fabric of administration, although by looking at each process separately it may be possible to develop some insights and achieve a level of understanding which could not be attained if administration is only examined in its entirety.

It should be apparent that, since this delineation of processes is a creation of the intellect, there can exist a number of different formulations of the processes involved in administration with no necessity for absolute congruence among them. The worth of a particular formulation is determined by its payoff in terms of improved understanding rather than any clear claim to greater accuracy in depicting reality.

Several formulations of administrative processes do exist and—while there are elements of similarity—there is no exact congruence. This lack of complete agreement need not be disturbing if these formulations are recognized for what they are, convenient and useful ways for thinking about administration. Care should be taken to avoid thinking of these processes as real entities or *things* which can be objectively

useful descriptions of administration are weighed or measured. As creations of man's intellect they are of value only until more developed. The study of administration is dynamic and subject to change as new theory and new knowledge are generated. Thus, it is highly probable that more useful descriptions *will* be developed.

The particular formulation of administrative processes with which this lecture series is dealing is that outlined by Gregg,[1] consisting of seven components. The process of coordinating or coordination is the present focus.

Occasionally attempts are made to ascribe relative degrees of importance to the several processes such as, for example, stating that coordination is one of the principal organizational functions.[2] This is a questionable and certainly unproductive exercise. If the processes are each essential, what gains accrue from attempting to differentiate degrees of importance? A state of being either essential or non-essential would seem to afford sufficient distinction.

Nature of Coordination

Coordination, as a process, is an attempt to develop and maintain a focus for organizational effort. It has been variously defined as mutually consistent decisions in combination for attaining the same established goal,[3] the activity that creates and maintains the organization,[4] the task of bringing things together in an harmonious relationship so that they function together effectively,[5] and the uniting of people and purpose in an organization that permits optimum growth in the most efficient manner.[6] These examples do not exhaust the definitions in the literature, yet they illustrate a certain commonality. The achievement of purposive behavior is one factor and agreement upon goals is another. Coordination consists of those acts which bring about or tend to foster the development of this desired state of affairs.

Need for Coordination

Coordination in an operating school unit focuses upon both immediate and long-range goals. There exists in each school the problem of the present—the necessity for bringing together students, teachers, supplies and equipment in a location and in a manner conducive to the accomplishment of learning. The immediate problem is essentially logistical in nature, the magnitude of the demand (the number of students) must be in some sort of balance with the means made available to meet this demand.

The longer-range considerations essentially deal with the nature of the learning situation, they are concerned with the quality of the encounter between teacher and student. Coordination in this area is more difficult since it involves more directly the thoughts and the feelings of organization members. Personality differences and individual variations in perception complicate the task. It is apparent that supervision is a coordinating activity.

It appears logical to assume that whenever two or more people are working cooperatively toward a common goal a greater likelihood for success exists when each party is aware of the efforts of all others and if each attempts to complement the work of the others. To the extent that barriers exist preventing the development of the necessary awareness, planned coordination is required to counteract the effects of these barriers. A number of factors or forces can be identified which can operate as obstructions to the natural development of fully integrated effort.

DIFFUSING FORCES exist in a school organization which retard the natural or automatic development of congruent behavior on the part of members of the organization. Analysis of the situation can be helpful in locating and describing these forces, thus aiding the administrator in devising strategies for dealing with them. Among such diffusing forces are:

(1) *Distance.* The size of the school organization often makes truly open face-to-face communication about goals and activities difficult or impossible. Sub-groups representative of relatively small segments of the total membership form and achieve relative homogeneity of effort but as *separate groups*, so that their efforts may be directed primarily toward group rather than organization aims. This can lead to fairly open competition among these groups for organizational resources rather than the desired goal of a concerted attack upon common problems. The prime objective may become maintenance of the group instead of achievement of the larger goals. Such goal displacement is usually dysfunctional in its effect upon the success of the organization.

(2) *Time.* Education is a sequential activity occurring longitudinally over

a significant portion of the life span of the individual client. Treatment accorded the client by any one member or group within the organization occurs during only a portion of his total period of contact with the system. Under these conditions, not only is uniformity of treatment difficult to achieve but the twin dangers of duplication or omission of treatment can quite easily come into existence. These three aspects can come into play whether the entire school district, a single school building, or for that matter, a provincial school system is the organization under examination. Achievement of equal and sequentially articulated instruction at any or among all of these levels is a formidable undertaking.

(3) *Role Factors.* Role identity is made up not only of the individual's perceptions of his role—his place in the total picture—but also of the views others hold of his proper role. The perceptions the individual holds of the expectations of others for his behavior also contribute to his conception of his role. Yet incongruence has been found between the perceptions of principals regarding the expectations others hold for their behavior and the actual views of others.[7] One of the most important features of socialization in an organization is learning the occupational roles.[8] This is further complicated by the multiplicity of roles an individual holds and the attendant role conflict[9] occasioned by conflicting demands from two or more groups of which he is a member or which influence his position. It is also possible to receive conflicting demands from different members of the same group.

(4) *Specialization.* Educational settings are characterized by an increasing tendency toward specialization of task and function. The development of larger school districts due to natural growth and consolidation results in more specialization at the central district level while the development of larger school units, particularly at the high school level, evidences the same trend within individual school buildings. The implementation of special programs such as those for the educable mentally retarded as well as the provision of courses allowing study in depth of an area also contributes toward the specialization trend. Some team teaching programs differentiate the activities of team members and thus are a part of this same trend. Specialization adds to the program by fostering the development of depth of knowledge. It is also detrimental to the program since the depth is often achieved at the cost of breadth of knowledge and concern for the overall program. The specialist identifies with a small group and often has his primary reference group outside the organization. Thus, the problem of coordinating is affected by the degree of specialization of staff in the particular situation.

Fortunately, there are ways to combat the diffusing forces. Selection and application of appropriate counter forces is a task of the administrator as he attempts to develop coordination in the organization. While it should be obvious that the conscious implementation of these counteracting measures involves such other processes as evaluating, planning, communicating, decision-making, etc., the implementation of programs will not be discussed. Focus will remain upon the forces themselves.

INTEGRATING FORCES can be brought into play by the administrator as a part of his coordinating effort. These forces can work toward a balance of organizational effort through the correction of imbalance resulting from the effects of diffusing forces.

(1) *Communication.* An adequate communication system is an effective coordinating device and one which is applicable against most if not all of the forces of diffusion. It is obvious that effective communication can reduce the barrier effects of both distances and time separation. It also affords feedback to the administrator enabling him to plan more effectively. Without open communication, the feedback received may be of small value. Communication is a "linking" operation which ties together the various parts of the organization. If it is successful in transmitting accurate and needed information it becomes a cohesive force. The communication system is

thus of real significance to the administrator and deserves careful and continuing planning and evaluation.

(2) *Articulation.* This is a term often heard in educational circles, usually in the context of curriculum study. It is useful, however, as a problem area upon which to focus staff attention. It may be fruitful to study problems of articulation, both between school levels and within school operations (as scope and sequence between course or between grade levels). Good articulation would be an effective meshing of the efforts of individuals, departments and schools. Focus upon articulation supplants focus upon specialization as well as compensates for the time separation between levels inherent in the sequential nature of education.

(3) *Socialization.* Some socialization into the role of educator occurs as a result of the teacher training program prior to certification. The process continues however in the interaction with colleagues on the job. It is probably necessary to make a conscious effort to continue this socializing through in-service work and staff meetings, since the formal preparation of teachers is notably less than that for some other professions. Teacher associations carry on continuing efforts in this respect but the difficulties in really reaching all teachers are apparent. Development of new or changed perceptions of the teacher's role could probably be effected through such techniques as problem-solving, case study analysis and role-playing, involving all staff members. To a degree, this is done in a less formal fashion in some parts of regular staff meetings as problems are discussed and agreements reached concerning their solutions. This is not, however, a consciously-planned attack but rather accidental both in occurrence and effect.

(4) *Rules and Policies.* Clearly-stated rules are an integrating device useful in establishing a common basis or framework for action. There sometimes appears to be a tendency to feel that rules are somehow inappropriate or undesirable instruments to employ. It is not the fact of rules themselves that is unsatisfactory but nature of some rules which are poorly constructed with little thought consequences. Rules should be developed with their purposes clearly in mind.

Simon has developed a differentiation of coordination into two types, "procedural" and "substantive."[10] He has attempted to identify particular acts which fall in one or the other category.

The administrator is engaged in procedural coordination when he develops an organization chart, locating each type of position somewhere in the organizational structure. Thus when he is describing or prescribing lines of authority or interrelationships his focus is on procedure.

When the administrator is concerned with substantive coordination he is specifying the nature and content of the work to be performed by a particular member. This constitutes detailed description of the task to be performed at a particular location in the structure.

If this is applied to school districts, at least to larger districts, procedural specification in the form of organization charts and policy handbooks is common. These are most often provided by the central office and view the overall school district. Seldom are such procedural specifications found at the individual school level. This does not mean that they cannot be so applied. Such specification would be of particular value to the teacher new to the school, facilitating his orientation to the school unit. In the absence of a clear statement, he must tread cautiously and wait for the emergence of problems to reveal the pattern of practices acceptable at that school unit. Evolution is a slow and not particularly efficient process.

Substantive coordination in a school environment is related to socialization. The more completely teachers are socialized into appropriate role behavior, the less substantive coordination is necessary. A change in practice, such as reporting to parents via the parent conference, may require administrative action of the substantive type.

(5) *Centralization.* Centralization and decentralization, for our purposes here, are both merely points upon a continuum representing the relative state of the organization with respect to the allocation of power and authority. There is also a geographical definition which need not be of concern. Without emphasizing the various ways in which sources of authority have been defined, it can be noted that specialization results in development of authority based upon expertise. The expertise of the administrator is different from that of other specialists in the organization, thus confrontation on the basis of other specialties is dangerous. If a battle upon the basis of expertise is to be fought, the administrator should keep the discussion in the field of administration.

The administrator also has recourse to the authority of his position. He can legitimately act upon this basis. Such action may be needed in a particularly diffused or fragmented organization in order to stablize conditions sufficiently to allow some of the other integrating forces to be brought into play. It may be necessary, for example, to centralize all or most decision-making as a prelude to a reallocation of decision-making power.

(6) *Committees.* The use of committees is probably more accurately considered as a strategy for employing some of the integrating forces rather than as a force in itself. However, committees may be used in an advisory capacity (which involves both the expertise and communication dimensions), as study groups (which also assits in socialization), and as coordinating bodies (which may cause specialists to focus upon integration of their various fields). Various ways for describing comtees can be developed, the crucial point is that they can serve a useful purpose in achieving closer coordination of organizational activity.[11]

(7) *Goal-Setting.* An activity which contributes to the achievement of coordination is that of setting goals, whether they be long-range or short-range in nature. It is particularly effective when goals are set and agreed upon as a result of group effort. The agreement achieved is a unifying force which tends to channel member behavior.

Goals can, of course, be set by persons outside the immediate work unit. This is effective only to the extent that the goals are accepted by the members of the organization and become a part of their goal structure. The problem of achieving meaningful communication, and thus member acceptance and commitment, is greater as the goal-setting activity is further removed from the group. Goals from outside may be accepted as legitimate, depending upon the source. In other words, the source may enjoy sufficient status to legitimate its goal setting effort. However, obtaining acceptance of the right of an outside authority to set a goal and obtaining commitment upon the part of organization members to achievement of the goal are two quite different matters.

Outlook for the Future

There is the constant danger that focusing too heavily upon the current situation may cause an organization to be relatively inflexible. One part of the administrator's task of coordinating is that of anticipating future trends and their probable consequences for the organization. To point up some of these probabilities, four factors can be readily identified:

(1) *The computer and information-processing.* Not only does the development of high-speed computers and their application in education have implications for the instructional process, it also carries significance for administration. Decisions can be based upon more information and perhaps better information than in the past. This will facilitate both evaluation and planning. It also will make possible a much more centralized decision-making structure.[12]

(2) *Fragmentation of learning locale.* The tendency has ben to bring children and youth to a single geographic location for education. Developments in information retrieval systems communication technology and transportation methods may cause this to be an outmoded approach. What coordination problems exist if education can occur anywhere in

the community without the necessity to be tied to a school building?

(3) *Professionalism.* The development of true professionalism would, in one sense, simplify the administrator's coordinating task since such members would be well-socialized into their roles. Conversely, some strategies currently available would probably become unavailable or ineffective with such staff.

(4) *Societal change.* Society does change, culture patterns are modified. For the school, this means re-definition of goals and re-direction of effort. For the administrator this means a continual struggle to bring about necessary modifications and to cause members to re-orient themselves so that effort is coordinated. Thus the task of coordination is continuous.

Responsibility for Coordination

The task of coordinating was defined earlier as an administrative process, it is thus the responsibility of administrators to see to its accomplishment. It is a part of the job of the administrator at any level of the organization. While the general outlines of the framework for the total organization—including coordination—emanates from the top administrator's office, coordinating activities are carried on in increasing degrees of specificity by administrators at other levels. For example, department heads must engage in coordinating activity at the departmental level just as principals do at the building level. Anyone whose job entails administrative behavior encompasses coordinating as a part of that behavior.

Summary

If the task of administration is conceived as comprised of a set of identifiable processes describing components of the total task, coordinating as a process occupies an important position in the list. Operationally, processes are not found in isolation but intertwined with each other to form the entire administrative activity. Examination of the several processes *as though* they were separate in existence and effect allows identification of factors which may be helpful in determining useful strategies for dealing with administrative problems. Coordination is an administrative process and as such is the responsibility of those discharging administrative duties.

There are many means of coordination that may be utilized. The achievement of a smooth-working organization with a maximum of member effort directed toward accomplishment of primary goals is dependent upon successful utilization of an appropriate combination of means. In great measure, then, the success of the organization is dependent upon the effectiveness of the administrator.

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TOWARD STRATEGIES OF EFFECTIVE COMMUNICATION

D. FRIESEN

Communication is fundamental to all types of social organizations, whether they be bureaucratic or collegial, large or small. Where several individuals combine to achieve a common goal, communication is crucial at all stages of endeavor. Without communication there would be no common aims or purposes, no co-ordination and no co-operation.

The place of communications in the fabric of society is receiving more and more attention. Theory and research about it cannot be ignored if man wishes to remain organized in social groups.

Society and organizations within it are networks of mutual agreements. We agree not to rob our fellow citizens, not to drive on the left side of the road, to deliver certain goods and services, to observe the rules of an organization and the organization agrees to let us enjoy the privileges that go with it. This complicated pattern of agreements which involves almost every aspect of our lives consists essentially of agreements to bring about events in the future. These agreements make society possible, and if the will of the vast majority of people concurs with them, behavior tends to become predictable, co-operation becomes possible, and organizations can flourish.

This then suggests that we must impose patterns of behavior on each other, to make predictable expectations possible. Citizens are expected to conform to social and civic customs. As Hayakawa states, "We must make soldiers courageous, judges just, priests pious, and teachers solicitious for the welfare of their pupils."[1] Perhaps in these days of turbulence we could add that we must also make the pupils solicitous for the need for such agreements.

In the early stages of man's development the principle means of so regulating behavior was by physical coercion. But even early in history man recognized the value of *words* as a means of control and direction. Thus directives about those things which society recognizes as essential for its survival have become extremely powerful. To make the effect even more certain, society has reinforced these by linking them with reward and punishment, with status positions, and with formalized channels.

Significance of Communication

Several developments during the past decades have increased the importance of communication in school systems. The four major mass media have greatly extended the method and effect of communication. Not only have the media been directly utilized in educational programs, but they have permitted much more contact with laymen. The school program has also been brought more frequently into the public eye. Since newsmen are primarily interested in the sensational, schools have often been pictured not in terms of what actually transpires, but in terms of the exceptional occurrence.

Specialization is another cogent factor relating to communication. The more people specialize the less time and energy they will devote to things beyond their speciality. In specializing they learn a perspective, an attitude, and a vocabulary peculiar to their field. This means that they will have greater difficulty communicating their ideas to laymen, or to other specialists and conversely, will find difficulty in understanding communications from other specialists. The specialization in teaching and in administration may have developed a suspicion in the minds of laymen. Teachers have developed a new vocabulary. Such terms as "modern math," "continuous progress," "stimulus response," and "programmed learning" have probably made teachers alienate themselves from the general public. Administrators are then charged with the delicate task of informing the school board, in the language of the laymen, what these new things really are, and what philosophy gives rise to them.

Increasing size of schools and school systems has made it imperative that communication between the different levels and among the different groups must be facilitated and encouraged. The larger size of school staffs, together with the greater specialization of individuals has resulted in greater compartmentalization. This, too, has increased the difficulty in the easy flow of

ideas in the school organization. The larger size often leads to a pyramiding of position on position, lengthening the line of communication, introducing gaps and blocks, and effecting status influence on the effectiveness of communications.

DEFINITION AND ROLE OF COMMUNICATION

Communication refers to the process of transmitting meaning from one individual organism to another. It can take many forms; words spoken, words written, mathematical symbols, musical notes, gestures, or even silence can convey meaning. The organisms involved in communication are individual persons, complex organizations, or even nations of the world. In this presentation the discussion is limited to the place of communication in the administrative process, and specifically in the school organization.

A communication system exists in every institution, whether it is a nation, corporation, football league, family, or school system. It serves to transmit information, feelings, values, and understanding. Under certain conditions it may be merely a channel to convey messages and directives as accurately as possible. On the other hand it may be invoked to develop group cohesiveness, loyalty, and commitment among the group members.

Campbell and Gregg view the professional role of administration in an organization as one which "is to influence the evolution of organizations and their governing systems in keeping with scientific-ethical values."[2] They define administration as "the total of the processes through which appropriate human and material resources are made available and made effective for accomplishing the purposes of an enterprise." It is clear that the process cannot function without communication.

Halpin, in designing research into administrative behavior defines the four major components of administration as the task, the formal organization, the work group, and the leader. The organization task is defined in terms of "desirable" behavior. This then implies an "oughtness," a normative language, and suggests that in order to keep the organization on the move "the sights for the task are set deliberately higher than current standards of the organization's accomplishments." The formal organization implies structure and communication channels, both formal and informal. The administrative behavior includes his perception of the organization's task and structure, his behavior as decision maker, and his behavior as group leader.[3] Communication is a vital process within these four major components of administrative behavior.

From these brief statements on the meaning of administration, the place of communication in the process can be delineated somewhat more clearly. Communication serves to transmit messages, to influence groups toward goals, to coordinate different members of an organization, and to facilitate leader behavior. In short, it pervades the administrative process.

THE NATURE OF COMMUNICATION

The Physical Model

In 1949 Lasswell described the communication process as follows: "Who says *what*, in which channel, to whom, with what effect?"[4] This shorthand statement has served as a guide to the development of a physical communication model. The typical model indicates that we have communication whenever one system, a *source*, influences another system, a *destination*, by manipulation of the alternative signals which can be carried in the *channel* connecting them. Further the information source can be viewed as producing one or more messages which are transformed by a *transmitter* into signals that the channel can carry. These signals are transformed by the *receiver* back into messages which can be accepted at the destination. This minimal system, presented in figure 1, has been applied with great generality in the study of information transmission in social systems. The activity of the transmitter is usually referred to as *encoding*, and that of the receiver as decoding. Anything that produces distortion of the message as it moves from the source to the destination is called *noise*.

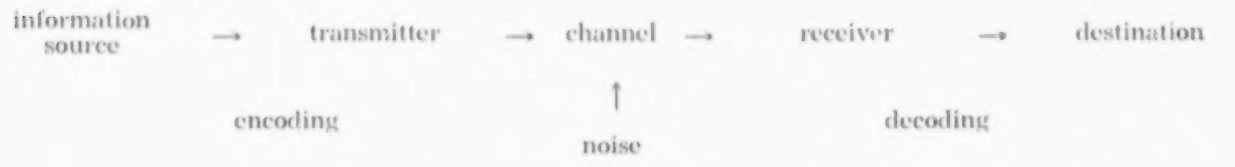

FIGURE 1[5]

Naturally, administrators are concerned with the success of their communication. Thus the effectiveness of communication at each step of the process will be briefly examined.

Information Source

The credibility of the information source relates significantly to the effectiveness of the communication. C. J. Hoveland and W. Weiss found that college students who received the information from trustworthy (Journal of Medicine) sources initially changed their attitudes more than those who obtained the same factual information from untrustworthy sources (Pravda and a movie gossip columnist). However, a month later the difference in agreement between the two groups decreased. The change was attributed to the initial resistance to the low credibility source, and to inconsistent reports. Credibiliy is enhanced when several sources emit consistent reports, and conversely, it is questioned if there are inconsistent reports.

Merv Thornton researching leader behavior as related to values held by principals and teachers found that "the perceptions of principals' Initiating Structure behavior by teachers whose values were similar to the principals' were significantly different from the perceptions by teachers whose values were different from those of their principals."[4] These two factors, the congruence of values between source unit and receiving unit, and the credibility of the source unit, are related to the effectiveness of communication.

The Message Transmitted

The content, style, form and other characteristics of the message content have received much attention. *Slanting* a message seems unavoidable, for the source wants it to be an effective communication. It can be deliberate, too. The same story can have a different impact by a simple choice of words. Is there any difference between "The Prime Minister takes a rest," and "The Prime Minister on Vacation?" What happens when the terms "needed rest" or "another vacation" are used? A message can also be slanted by giving only one side of the story. Other effective means of encoding messages are the use of the "band wagon" effect such as "everyone is doing it," and offering great generalities like "the Pepsi Generation." One of the most effective persuasion principles refers to the appeal of existing desires. Because girls probably want boys more than they want to be clean, soap is used as a means to that goal. For the same reason, students are exhorted to stay in school not for an education but for the anticipated income which they want.

Having chosen the appropriate language, which must be understood by both parties, the communicator must choose the proper channel.

The Channel

The choice of the channel is important because the quality of the communication depends directly on it. The message and the nature of the receiver will determine the choice of channel. If the message is general then a diffuse medium such as a newspaper, radio, television, or journal will be used. If the matter is for an individual or a small group other channels will be used. The conference, seminar, memo, coffee-break, committee, telephone, and staff meeting are examples. The channel could be likened to the medium that has received singular attention lately.

The Receiver and Destination

In the case of a telephone message the receiver will decode the message and reproduce similar sounds that were encoded into the system. Yet the full reception involves the total receiving unit be it a person or a group. Again their perceptions, their values will affect the meaning that the message holds for them. Further, the notion that the communicator is concerned only with sending his message in the most effective manner to the recipient who will alone come to a decision on a purely rational basis is hardly supported by research. Lane[5] concludes that such a mechanical model does not adequately take into account the total process of social interaction which influences the reception of messages. He offers a new view of the so-called "two-step flow" of information.

TWO-STEP FLOW OF COMMUNICATION

1. The Relay Function

The communication process can be viewed as part of the leadership structure, in which case the messages may not go from the sender to the receiver but may move from the sender to an opinion leader in the group, and then to the receiver. Thus the opinion leaders act as "gate-keepers" for

the group. Katz and Lazarsfeld refer to this as the *relay function* of interpersonal relations.[8] The opinion leaders also act as judges of the information that they pass on. This has been labeled the *reinforcement function*. Obviously, if opinion leaders support a communication it is likely to be received more favorably than if they reject it.

The extended model of communication has the message going from the source to the gate-keepers, and from the gate-keepers to the receiver. In this system the gate-keepers exert considerable influence on the effectiveness of the communication and merit close attention. Research indicates a number of things about those who screen and reinforce communication. They were distributed in all occupational groups and in all socio-economic levels, high status was not an essential characteristic. Social status was less important than gregariousness and age in every area except public affairs. Formal media were more effective than were personal relationships as sources of influence on the opinions of the "gate-keepers." Lane, Corwin, and Monahan suggest that the mass media need not reach all of the citizens, only the few influential opinion leaders, in order to be effective. This is what they call the relay function in communication.[9]

The reinforcement function of these influential leaders may either support the intent of the message or provide a defence against incompatible messages. To illustrate, a message may come from a superintendent; the teacher may read it and then forget about it. When, however, he hears his friends discuss it he will recall the content, but now he will reinterpret it in the light of the group perspective. Thus, personal conversation can act as a filter to what teachers and administrators read and hear. Further, the reinforcement and opinion change are problems of group conformity.

Noise

As indicated earlier, anything that distorts the message as it moves from the communicator to the communicatee was labeled noise. Under this general umbrella definition, noise could then refer to inconsistency of messages, value differences, perception differences, the effect of the media, but it could also refer to the human interaction which reshapes, interprets, and often intensifies, clarifies, or confuses messages. This latter portrays communication as a two-way interaction between and among groups. These factors will be examined somewhat in dealing with barriers to effective communication.

Barriers to Effective Communication

The nature of the communication which permeates a school is significantly related to the school's effectiveness in achieving its goals. A number of barriers to effective communication have been mentioned in the development of the model of communication; others can be added. Administrators need to be aware of the barriers that may exists in their communication sphere. The following five barriers in no way exhaust the sources of resistance to effective communication in schools but they help to initiate thinking about the problems in sending and receiving messages. For each barrier some ideas are presented for reducing the difficulties generated.

(1) Status positions and "tall" hierarchical structures can decrease the effectiveness of communication. In some such arrangements democratic results are expected from autocratic procedures. The difficulties are compounded if the hierarchy practices mostly downward communication, is insensitive to feed-back, and lacks an understanding of the social-psychological factors involved. Some ideas have been expressed to counteract the problems associated with hierarchical structures.

Formal communication is based on authority and position and requires careful development to assist school systems to be effective. Channels and media of communication need to be consciously set up to encourage the free flow of ideas up, down, and laterally. The lines of communication should be as short as possible, with several available for each staff member. The system should be understood and in harmony with human relationships that exist. Usually this implies an open climate.

(2) Failure to recognize that communication is both expression (a command, request, question, or idea) and an impression (what is received). The test of effectiveness is really the return communication. A simple message may become a difficult problem. As we have seen, impression can be influenced by a variety of factors. To assure more accurate communication establish formal and encourage informal contacts, keep communication lines open, keep staff informed, ask for feedback, and make formal communication attractive and brief.

(3) A militant informal group may impair communication. This becomes apparent

when individual members promote their own interests, when they withhold information, foster cliques, or develop rivalry and dissension. Such informal groups, instead of promoting good human relations, developing unity for staff, and generating and disseminating new ideas actually distort, divert, or slow down communication. To counteract this, principals recognize emerging leaders and use them in committees, they make staff decisions legal decision, and thus involve informal groups in school work. The promotion of friendliness and co-operation is intended to reinforce rather than obstruct the effectiveness of communication in schools.

(4) The human factor can be another barrier to effective communication. Lane, Corwin, and Monahan[10] mention such things as lack of attention, disinterest, selective attention, misinterpretation and rigidity of attitudes as barriers. Wiles mentions differing values, perceptions, conflicts in interest, feelings of insecurity, and the lack of desire to understand the other person's point of view.[11]

(5) Failure of effective communication can also be blamed on the sheer mechanics of the process. As already discussed the presentation or choice of words or media and the choice of the channel are significant factors in communication.

COMMUNICATOR TYPES

It is not too difficult to abstract from the literature and from experience certain communicator types among administrators. Below I postulate five such types.

(1) *Thoughtful.* This is the one sensitive to values and attitudes, sensitive to the processes of the formal and informal groups, prepared to take the role of others and establish two way flow of communication, and willing to listen.

(2) *Directional.* This administrator sends information, ideas, and direction down the hierarchy, and heeds little the voices within the organization. Often he is attentive to outside sources and official notes.

(3) *Selective.* This administrator deals with a select few on the staff, neglecting to involve many. A small group of teachers will be in the know; most will be "silent" workers in the organization rarely receiving the satisfaction of acknowledgement.

(4) *Meticulous.* Each detail is carefully attended to by this type. He transmits only carefully developed ideas and directives. Communication has become an end for him, for by its neatness, correctness, and efficiency he judges his school. It is not the content but the medium that is important. Narrowly defined, exacting, and rule bound the communication may alienate the recipients.

(5) *Enthusiastic.* The last type represents the one who sends volumes of communications: newsletters, memos, letters, announcements etc. Communication becomes a delightful game, but people become immune as they are deluged by the enormous volume. The messages may reach the desk but not the mind.

This paper has focussed attention on the process of communication in administration. Several reasons for its increasing importance were cited. Communication was defined and its nature explored using as a basis the modified mechanical model. A few barriers of communication were mentioned and this was followed by a look at communication types. From all this, five strategies leading to effective communication seemed to rise. These will be examined briefly in closing.

STRATEGIES FOR EFFECTIVE COMMUNICATION

1. *An awarness of encoding problems.* The type of words chosen, the form of transmitting the message, and the manner of the communication should all reflect the nature and purpose of the message, as well as the social-psychological attributes of the receiver. For instance, if the message is simply information for teachers the words chosen and the form may call for a clear, concise memo. If, on the other hand, the message asks for ideas for changing student organization, this type of communitation appears inadequate. It is apparent that similar messages would be coded differently when submitted to heads of departments or to school board members. The coding must anticipate the perceptions of the receivers.

2. *An awareness of choice of proper channel.* Many channels of communication are available to principals. Two major divisions could be made in regards to such channels. There are communications that go outside the school and those that flow within the school.

Since education receives even more attention from the public, and demands more of its funds, the pressure to keep the public informed remains. The administrator as an expert stands for *change*, in the face of the laymen, who are not only suspicious of the expert, but oriented, in part, toward traditional ways. Thus communication with the outside world is critical for the educator. The channels for this communication seem to be the mass media, but research indicates that the utility of the mass media for changing opinions seems to be quite limited. The reason advanced is that the process of interaction is impossible, no immediate feedback can be arranged. Other reasons might exist. The public media have not proved too successful when opinion leaders were opposed, or when public interest was low. Thus the action may be needed with the opinion leaders and the gradual education of the populace.

Internal communication patterns have much in common with the external network, yet they are complicated by the presence of formal networks within the organizational structure. Effective communication thus depends on the openness of lines, on the number of channels, on entry points, on all-directional flow, and on filtering processes. The question is, what channels are most effective for what purposes and for what audience?

3. *An awareness of the social-psychological forces.* These have been discussed already. Suffice it to say that the source anticipates the value structure, the attitudes, and the characteristics of the receiver in sending the message, and practices an open climate conducive to interchange of ideas. Often he assumes the role of the receiver in coding his message.

4. *An awareness of the gate-keepers and reinforcers.* The administrator must study not only the individuals but also the groups in his organization. He must be aware of the individuals who will intercept the flow of communication and either reinforce or impede it. How does he deal with these influentials in his social system?

5. *An awareness of organizational influences.* The type of organizational structure will affect the communication in the school system. Gardner found that distortions occur at each point in the communications process, and concluded that the taller the administrative structure the less informed any member of the organization will be. Other research found that information is often blocked as it moves up or down the hierachy, and that often no up-the-line communication occurs. This is further complicated by differences in perspectives from incumbents in the various positions. Finally, the "middle-men" in the line have problems of identity and loyalty.[12] How can you overcome all these obstacles to effective communications? A low or flat structure and an open climate are two ideas worth considering in the encouragement of two-way flow of communication in a school.

From all of this it is apparent that the flow of information through any organization is extremely complex. Information enters and leaves the system, and within the system it flows both in formal and informal channels. Information that flows is affected by the source, the channel, the receivers, and by the nature of the situation.

Today's school administrator faced with the growing amount of information and increasing number of professionals is still expected to manage that organization. In doing this, and in making the decisions to build the effective school unit, he is challenged to work toward free flow of communication in his school.

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INFLUENCING, AN ELEMENT IN THE ADMINISTRATIVE PROCESS

F. ENNS

What do the following have in common: civil disturbances in American cities, student takeover at major universities, disorders in France and other European countries, draft-card burning in the U.S., parents' refusal to send children to school in rural Alberta, pupils' neglect of assigned homework, teachers' failure to carry out the clear directives of the principal, the principal's driving to school at 35 miles per hour though the route is clearly posted at 30 miles per hour? Although differing in magnitude and intensity and varying in the seriousness of their consequences, the examples are related in that they all involve flouting of constituted authority. The behavior is not only unintended, it is directly contrary to what was intended or even stipulated. Behaviour such as this—disobedience of orders, contravention of regulations—is very common. It occurs in civic affairs, in the home, in the classroom. Even the moral imperatives of the church are frequently disregarded. In military organizations where conventional thought suggests that obedience to commands is unquestioned, evasion of authority is as common as elsewhere. In totalitarian nations, where one would expect absolute obedience, there is widespread disregard for rules and regulations. When he was aked on one occasion whether it was true that it was nearly impossible to govern New York city, Mayor Lindsay replied, "What do you mean 'nearly'?"

Do these observations mean we are a miscellaneous collection of lawless individuals, or that everywhere men are in revolt against constituted authority? And if, indeed, there is such widespread evasion—or even contravention—of authority, how is it that our affairs proceed as smoothly as they do?

To understand these questions and the examples which have given rise to them, it is necessary to re-examine the process of influencing the behavior of people in general, and in organizational situations in particular. It is necessary to re-examine the concepts of power and authority for obviously our observations are not explained by the concepts which we have generally held. In the past we have tended to take a somewhat over-simplified view of power and authority relationships, and then when people failed to behave within the limits implied by our view, we left that people were unpredictable and even ungrateful for what had been done for them.

My task is to look at influencing as part of the process of administration. To do so will lead us directly to considerations of power and authority. Although I will be speaking in general organizational terms, you will see the applications to school organizations and situations. As you have no doubt already discovered, there is no such thing as process of administration considered as pure process. There is only human behavior, and from that behavior we infer that there is an orderliness which we choose to call "process." Similarly there is no such thing as pure influence, or power or authority. There are only situations in which behavior is such that there appear to be power and authority relations. It is these situations and relations which I wish to examine. I am drawing mainly on the writing of four men for the basic ideas which I will develop: Chester Barnard, Robert Presthus, John French and Bertram Raven. Other authors discuss and extend much the same line of thought, but these present the basic material.

The Need for Influencing

As long as people live, work and play in groups which are more or less organized, there is need for them to act in unison, or in concert, at least some of the time. As the group task or undertaking becomes more complex and more extensive in its consequences, this need for concerted, coordinated behavior becomes more pronounced. Some actions are to be encouraged, others are to be discouraged. This means that the initiatives of some individuals will be accepted and imposed on others, while the initiatives of others will be rejected and even suppressed. To do otherwise would result in chaos. Imagine what would happen if in the construction of a house every worker were to do what he thought appropriate in the way and at the time he

wished. Although all might work with complete good will, the end result would probably be less than an acceptable house. What is needed, then, is some mechanism by which individuals can be influenced to accept a common sequence of operations, and an objective level of performance of those operations.

In all group situations one course of action must be selected from among all the possible courses open. This need not be the best course of action, and it can be changed at any point in the overall operation. The important thing is that all the participants are more or less in agreement that the course of action is an acceptable one. Otherwise no coherent progress toward the objective or goal can be made. The interesting questions are: which of all the possible actions will be chosen; what is the mechanism by which it is chosen; and how are group members influenced to accept this course over others for which they might have had a greater preference?

Somehow a hierarchy develops, in which some individuals defer to others and accept their initiatives rather than making their own, though these may differ and may even be superior. One can observe this process among children at play, in the functioning of volunteer groups, in the behavior of members of a committee. Whyte* observed it in street corner gangs. One could cite a number of examples. Obviously the hierarchy has something to do with social power, and with authority.

Power and Authority

The terms "power" and "authority" are common ones in our vocabularies. We use them as though we know what they mean. It is not until we make a conscious attempt to specify what they mean that we begin to understand the complexity of the concepts involved. And only then do we begin to understand how interrelated are the concepts of influence, power, authority, leadership, communication, administration. Let me advance some preliminary suggestions as to definitions and then see where they lead us. Influence is being exercised when a person or group of persons is activated to do something which he (it) would not have done at that time and in those circumstances had he (it) not been subjected to the forces which are being applied. This leaves us a very broad conception of influence in which we can include the whole range of influencing behaviors from persuasion of the gentlest sort to coercion bordering on direct physical aggression. In classical organization theory, the ability to influence another, or a group of others, is termed power, or more precisely social power. Thus the foreman has power to direct the behavior of men in his crew; the teacher has power to direct the work of pupils; the school board has power to make regulations regarding the dress of pupils. Considerations of social power must, however, exclude coercion by aggression or physical violence. The resort to violence by persons in positions of power, is an admission by them that they actually have no social power, for violence and aggression are behaviors of a different order altogether. When a person applies social power in a legitimate way in a legitimate situation, classical theorists would say, he has authority. Thus, the policeman who arrests the jay-walker in Edmonton, is said to have the authority to do so, and the teacher who disciplines the recalcitrant pupil is exercising his authority. But in each example legitimate behavior is very clearly circumscribed, and if either policeman or teacher exceeds the bounds of legitimate behavior, he is no longer acting within his authority and may himself be subject to disciplinary action.

French and Raven* in discussing the concept of social power suggest that it stems from five bases: reward power, coercive power, legitimate power, referent power, and expert power. Each of these is proposed as a base from which others are influenced to modify their behavior. It is assumed that the modification will be in the direction intended.

REWARD POWER. This is based on the perception that another person in the organization has the ability to mediate rewards for one. That is if he has held out to him the promise of rewards—either material or psychological—in return for certain behaviors or changes in behavior, the individual is likely to make the changes. Thus, it is postulated that a pupil will work harder and more effectively if the teacher holds out the likelihood of his earning higher marks, or receiving an award, or receiving praise for his efofrts. Similarly, it is assumed that teachers will work better if the system of rewards is adequate. The merit pay argu-

*W. F. Whyte, *Street Corner Society.* Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1943.

*John R. P. French, Jr. and Bertram Raven, "The Bases of Social Power," in D. Cartwright and A. Zander (eds.). *Group Dynamics* 2nd ed. New York: Harper and Row. 1960, pp. 607-623.

ment, for example, is based on the notion that the promise of higher financial reward will motivate better teaching behavior. Not all rewards are material in nature, of course. Rewards of satisfaction, love, acceptance, esteem may be even more effective as bases for power than tangile ones.

COERCIVE POWER. This is the perception that someone else can mediate punishment for one. It is the negative aspect of reward power. It involves threat of retribution for misbehavior, or failure to behave as directed. It is the basis for the punishments imposed by the law—so much if caught jay-walking; so much if speeding; so much for minor theft, or for major theft; and so on. The threat of such punishments is intended to motivate desirable behavior, or at least to deter undersirable behavior. Again the threat of psychological punishments may be more effective than threats of tangible ones. Overall, however, they are differentially effective, depending on how the recipient responds. Thus a mild reprimand may be devastating to one pupil, but another may not respond at all.

LEGITIMATE POWER. This is based on the perception one has that another has the *right* to prescribe behavior for him. A pupil believes that teachers have the right to require certain behaviors. Workers belive that the foreman or supervisor has the right to direct their behavior on the job. We believe that the policeman has the right to require us to remain within speed limits. In organizations, most of us grant that those in hierarchical positions above us have the right to require certain behavior of us. When we join the organization we agree, explicity or implicitly, that we will abide by legitimate regulations and will fulfill rightful demands made upon us. This attitude tends to be be a cultural thing. Most of us have been socialized to this kind of response. But many North American Indians have not, and thus do not respond in the same way as we in schools, on jobs or in social situations in general. European laborers submit to many demands from supervisors which would cause North American workers to bridle with indignation and refuse.

A society or culture has a number of ways of legitimating power: election to the office of prime minister, for example, or clothing an individual in a particular uniform, or appointing him to a particular office and giving him a title such as principal, superintendent, president, executive director.

REFERENT POWER. This is based on the extent of identification of one individual with another or with a group. The greater the degree of identification the more likely the individual is to acquiesce to behavioral expectations, to adopt group norms, or to respond to sanctions which may be threatened. Thus high school students, identifying more with the peer group than with the professional staff, are much more profoundly influenced by the teen-age society than by the school. A high school teacher who identifies more closely with mathematicians than with teachers as a whole, is likely to be more concerned with teaching mathematics than with attempting to meet the overall needs of boys and girls. All people tend to take cues from their reference groups, and these groups tend to influence their behavior. It can be shown that this is particularly true of persons who belong to professional groups. Doctors, lawyers, teachers, social workers, nurses, and many others, tend to be influenced as much or more by the norms of their professional reference groups as by the real needs of patients and clients.

EXPERT POWER. This is based on the perception that someone has special knowledge, or skill, and that by virtue of this expertness should be followed or obeyed because he knows best what sort of behavior is appropriate in the circumstances. Thus teachers listen to and attempt to carry out the instructions of specialist consultants (and principals at meetings such as this, listen attentively to university professors) because they perceive them to have a degree of expertness which they themselves do not possess. The apprentice follows the suggestions of the master craftsman; the fledgling lawyer observes the advice of the senior members of the firm and the freshman high school or university student looks up to the exalted senior as embodying the world's wisdom.

All of these bases of power make good sense. They have been stated in similar terms by numerous other authors. Max Weber, for instance, spoke of legitimate power or authority. He spoke of formal authority or the authority of position. Others have talked of legal authority. Charismatic authority—the authority of personality—has received a good deal of attention. Traditional authority—the fact that it is customary to place someone in authority over another—is partly the basis for the obedience pupils give to teachers But although there is a strong element of

credibility in this sort of analysis, it leaves a number of factors unexplained. Even when applied to a highly bureaucratic organization, with its emphasis on hierachy of authority, it seems to be inadequate to account for actual behavior observed.

The earlier explanations have usually gone something like this. Authority, or sovereignity, resides in the people at large. They delegate this authority to their elected representatives--the parliament, legislature, council or school board depending on the level of government under discussion. The legislature, in turn, delegates authority—some to school boards, some to councils, some to officials, some to its own officers. In school systems, the story goes, the board delegates some of the power delegated to it to the superintendent. He delegates to his subordinates, who in turn delegate downward further and further. Thus a neat, logical conceptualization is drawn. The only thing wrong with it is that it does not fit the observed facts. The illustrations with which I began this paper could not occur if authority relations developed in this way.

Another Look at Authority

An example will serve to illustrate the nature of authority more fully. Assume I am driving along the street at 35 miles per hour. As I approach the intersection, I notice a policeman standing on the corner. Immediately I reduce speed. Why? Certainly not because of anything the policeman has done—he just stood there, and probably had not even noticed me. If it had been an ordinary person there, dressed in a police costume, the effect on me would have been the same. Did I slow down because of the policeman's authority? Probably not. I slowed down because of my own volition. Had I decided not to slow, I might have been assessed a penalty, but as long as I am willing to pay the penalty, the policeman has no authority over me. Only when I grant it to him, does he have authority over me. Hence authority is not something delegated from the top downward, but rather from the bottom upward. The teacher can influence the behavior of pupils only so long as they permit him to do so. When they decide not to grant this authority, the teacher can do nothing about it. Student strikes are examples of that. Class withdrawal of authority need not be dramatic. One of the most effective examples of this that I ever experienced was with a class which had decided not to be influenced in any way by the teaching staff. They were no trouble as far as discipline went. But they were also completely unresponsive to teaching.

The School Act says something about compulsory attendance. The provision is effective as long as all but a few agree with it. But there have been parents who refuse to send their children to school because they object to a school's location. If substantial numbers refused to send their children the law could not be enforced. Again, it is in these parent groups that the authority resides. Only when they grant it can the authority be effective.

In a similar manner teachers grant authority to principals and superintendents. When they are prepared to permit such officials to exercise power or authority, it can be effective. When they refuse to make such a grant, no change occurs. And again the resistance may be wholly passive, so that no overt clash of wills needs to occur.

Every authority situation can be analyzed in the same way. In actual fact, the authority resides in the lower participants and is delegated by them upwards to superiors. Chester Barnard[3] is the chief exponent of this point of view. Barnard defines authority as,

> "the character of a communication (order) in a formal organization by virtue of which it is accepted by a contributor to or "member" of the organization as governing the action he contributes; that is, as governing or determining what he does or is not to do so far as the organization is concerned."

According to this definition, authority involves a subjective as well as objective aspect. The former refers to the personal acceptance of the communication as authoritative. The latter refers to the character of the communication by virtue of which it is accepted. It is the subjective aspect with which we are here concerned, and thus the determination as to whether an order has authority or not lies with the persons to whom it is addressed rather than in the person issuing the order. Barnard suggests that when authority fails it does so because individuals in sufficient numbers feel that the burden of accepting the orders outweighs the advantage which would accrue from such acceptance, and they then withhold or withdraw their acceptance.

A person can and will accept a communication as authoritative when four con-

[3] Chester I. Barnard, *The Functions of the Executive*, Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1938.

ditions pertain simultaneously. First he must understand the communication. A foreign language, excessively technical terminology, use of concepts for which inadequate preparation has been given, lack of clarity, unnecessarily involved statements—all may prevent accurate understanding of meaning and or intent. As a result, the recipient cannot comply, and there is no authority being applied. Interpretation and reinterpretation of directions or instructions is absolutely essential if respondent behavior is to be what was intended at the outset.

Second, to be acceptable a communication must not be contrary to the purposes of the organization, as the individual understand them. For instance if there are conflicting directives, the recipient will disregard the one which he believes contradicts the purposes of the organization. To order a teacher to risk the safety of children would have very little effect. She simply would not accept the order.

Third if the burden of obeying outweighs the advantage of organizational membership, an order would likely be evaded or disobeyed. For instance, if the distastefulness of repossessing a family's belongings outweighs the salary and other benifits of being employed by a finance company, an employee would either avoid doing the job, risk being discharged, or voluntarily terminate his employment.

Fourth, the recipient of the order must be able to comply. Otherwise he must evade or disobey. To order a non-swimmer to swim is nonsense. To order an unskilled worker to perform a skilled operation would be futile; he simply cannot do what he was being asked to do.

These four conditions reinforce the contention that the authority resides in the recipient of a communication which directs or requires, rather than in the person who gives the command. Does this mean, then, that each time one receives a directive that he stops to consider and weigh the positive and negative aspects before coming to a decision as to whether to comply or not? Or that compliance depends on the individual's whim or caprice? Our observations would deny this. Many orders, or requests are accepted without hesitation. Barnard suggests that each person has a "zone of indifference" such that directives falling within it are accepted without conscious question. The zone of indifference is greater or smaller for different persons, or for the same person at different times. Its size depends upon the degree of commitment of the individual to the organization or group, and on the extent to which inducements exceed the burdens and sacrifices involved. It is elastic and can be enlarged by appropriate supervisory behavior. When an individual joins an organization, he grants it certain rights. That is, he is prepared to submerge his own impulses and desires in favor of what he perceives to be the legitimate demands of the organization. Any requirement that falls within the limits of tnis grant, will be accepted without question. As he gains experience in and knowledge of the organization, he will probably alter the extent of the grant of authority to the organization. Commands which fall outside the zone of acceptance (Simon's term) will receive more conscious consideration. Those just outside will be dealt with easily; those some distance beyond the boundaries would be carefully studied. Thus, a teacher who joins the staff of an urban school system will probably be prepared to grant the system such rights as requiring him to be at school by 8:45 a.m., to keep a record of pupil attendance, to attend staff meetings, to take his turn at playground supervision, to respond to the reasonable requests of the principal. He might be somewhat more hesitant about accepting chaperone duties at a social function to be held in another city. He would be most reluctant to report on the out-of-class political or social activities of a colleague, and would probably evade such a directive. He would probably refuse outright if he were required to do double duty in a school organized in shifts.

Implications

This approach to the study of authority, power and influence has a number of interesting implications for the way in which administrators perform their functions. First of all, without actual physical coercion or aggression, it is probably not possible to *make* anyone do anything. The only way in which to obtain compliance is to win consent or acceptance of the individual to whom a request is directed. This compliance or acceptance may be encouraged in a variety of ways, such as those outlined by French and Raven, but the ultimate decision as to whether or not to grant compliance rests with the individual. The strength of this sort of final choice is well-ilustrated by religious martyrs who refused to recant even in the face of torture and death.

The administrator in an organization starts a long way above the base line, in

gaining this consent, however. All organizational participants have made a tacit agreement that they will accept without question at least a minimum of requirements. The so-called "difficult" individual may accept a narrower range of these requirements than do others, but he too has agreed to comply in many ways without resistance. Beyond the confines of the zone of acceptance, however, the administrator must win over the consent or compliance of organizational participants.

If it is correct that the subordinate rather than the superior holds the ultimate authority, and delegates it upward as he sees fit, then coercive behavior on the part of the superior is, in the long run, ineffective. While the threat of punishment or negative sanctions of some kind, may obtain compliance in the immediate situation, such compliance will be of a minimum duration only. It may be enough to satisfy immediate demands, but will probably not extend to long-term needs. When the situation recurrs, the threat will have to be invoked again. Nor does coercion induce commitment which is essential, especially in professional organizations, and indeed, wherever creative approaches to complex, unstructured tasks are desired. The use of reward power may have many of these same undersirable effects, for it too tends to emphasize the wrong motives.

A much more effective approach is to persuade rather than coerce. Persuasion means getting the voluntary consent of the member to act as desired. Getting this voluntary consent also means obtaining a deep professional commitment, which in turn assures that the individual will go far beyond the immediate "call of duty" in his position. And this, after all, is what we are attempting to develop—a self-directed, professionally committed, mature and responsible approach to one's work. Nothing less than this can be very effective in so complex a task as teaching or running a school. It would be utterly hopeless to try to direct every move of a teacher or of a pupil, or of a principal, for that matter. The close supervision, the constant direction and inspection that this implies are absolutely impractical and impossible.

To make possible the alternative of professional maturation and creativity is a major challenge facing the administrator. His leadership, the effectiveness of his implementation of the whole administrative process, the adequacy of his program of stimulating and motivating professional people will largely determine how well he meets the challenge. As his staff gains confidence in him, they will be more likely to delegate authority to him. The more they accept him, the more direction they expect him to give, and the more they are prepared to accept.

Such an approach as this to the exercise of authority, or the exertion of influence, is much more difficult than the apparently more direct way of giving orders or commands. It is, however, much more effective and rewarding, both in accomplishing the organization's tasks and in promoting the professional growth of colleagues. It is this sort of pay-off that we seek.

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A MODEST PROPOSAL FOR EVALUATION IN EDUCATION

LESLIE R. GUE

INTRODUCTION

Two inspection reports, dated one year apart, lay side by side on the Superintendent's desk. He looked at them, and wondered again if they could both be reporting upon the same teacher. Surely no two administrators could see the same teacher in such differing ways. If one were correct, no school system with any regard for its pupils would hire the teacher. If the other superintendent were correct, any school system would vigorously recruit the same teacher for the good of its pupils. Wherein lay the difference in the two evaluations?

The above example, drawn from my own experience, demonstrates variation in the process of making value judgments, or "evaluating." Value judgments, possibly made impulsively or unsystematically, may affect the lives of scores of children and adults. How can we avoid gross errors in value judgments, and establish a consistent frame of reference from which to view human behavior? Before we attempt to grapple with this very profound question, let us examine for a short time the ideas lying behind the words "value" and "values," the heart of the word "e-*value*-ate."

II. CONCEPTS OF VALUE AND VALUES

How often have we heard the smug clincher to arguments, "It all depends upon where your values lie." What are these "values" that we assume everyone carries around? Writing on the subject is voluminous, since philosophers have long been concerned with axiology—the study of values. I am somewhat partial to a classification of values proposed by Ruesch. (1957, p. 2) He suggests that there are basically four classes of values:

1. that which is identified with preferential behavior
2. that which refers to anticipatory behavior, to that which is esteemed or desired
3. that which is associated with what is deemed appropriate or efficacious for a certain purpose
4. that which is identified with price of an object or action.

When we are in the process of making value judgments, it might be wise to speculate each time as to which class of values we are using as our yardstick for measuring behavior. The appropriate question might be: "Am I judging the person because of actions which display his preferences, because of his dreams of the desirable, because of his effectiveness, or because of his price?"

From the literature on values, it appears that they possess a number of basic characteristics.

The first characteristic of values is the notion of "betterness." A is valued because it is better than B. The second characteristic is that the notion of betterness is accompanied by a commitment to action. If we really value A more than B, we then are under an obligation to strive for A. A third characteristic of values is that they differ from attitudes or beliefs. A generally-accepted definition of attiudes is that they represent a readiness to respond in a certain way, but that they do not necessarily imply a commitment to action. For example, my attitude towards parsnips is never evoked as long as I am not asked to eat them. If I see a North American Indian or an Oriental person, I have an attitude of warmth or interest, but this does not mean that I therefore rush up and pump him by the hand.

A belief has been defined as the conviction or feeling of the truth of some proposition or the reality of some phenomenon, without the necessity for objective evidence. Synonyms include concepts of trust, confidence, or faith. Such a state of mind does not imply any commitment to action. I believe that the earth circles the sun, but I don't do much about it.

However, it is quite obvious that these nice, clean little pigeon-holes don't necessarily hold true in real life. The most powerful motivator is any concept which combines values, attitudes and beliefs. For example, if I believe (consider to be true) that people with white skins are better (value judgment) than people with colored skins, I will respond (attitude) strongly if

someone suggests that colored people are better than white people. If you want the recipe for revolution, there it is: link a belief to a value to an attitude, then challenge the whole construct.

I have found very useful a definition of values proposed by three political scientists (Jacob, Flink and Schuchman, 1962, p. 27). These authors suggest that values are:

> . . . the normative standards by which human beings are influenced in their choice among the alternative courses of action which they perceive.

Your will notice the key words: "normative," "standards," "influenced," "choice," "alternative," and "perceive." If we accept this definition, we will make judgments of behavior based on standards when alternatives of choice are present, and will take into account differing perceptions of different human beings of the same situation.

This brief excursion into philosophy is made in order to set the stage for a discussion of the evaluate process, with special reference to education.

III. THE EVALUATIVE PROCESS

Reference has been made to impulsiveness and lack of system in the process of evaluation. Indeed, one can speculate as to whether in many cases there is a process used at all, or whether, to use Bruner's barbarism, the evaluator "intuits" a value judgment. Campbell and Gregg (1957, p. 312) suggest four steps in a systematic evaluative process: (1) selection and definition of the particular phase of the total activity which is to be evaluated, (2) development and acceptance of basic criteria on which interpretations and judgments will be made, (3) collection of data pertinently related to the criteria, and (4) analysis and interpretation of the data and the drawing of conclusions. They also point out that evaluation is always carried out in a context of goals or objectives. "It is a means for determining how well the organization, the program, or the activity is achieving the purposes for which it was designed." (1957, loc. cit.) If, for example, the goal of teaching is to produce basic literacy, as it is in some developing countries, the evaluation of that teaching must surely be different from the evaluation of teaching which has as its goal the development of critical thinking. In a developed country, if the goal of education is to produce children capable of regurgitating vast quantities of memorized information, evaluation of the success of the total system differs from that of a system designed to produce flexible, adaptable individuals capable of making three or four major occupational shifts in a working lifetime. Evaluation, then, is always commenced with a view to the goals of the activity.

1. Selection of the Phase of the Activity Being Evaluated

In education, we may divide activity into two broad sectors, as far as evaluation is concerned. We may wish to evaluate the *output* of educational services—presumably, educated citizens—or the *process* itself.

EVALUATION OF EDUCATIONAL OUTPUT. Educational output is obviously concerned with the individual whose behavior is being, or has been, altered by formal educational experiences. The final test, of course, is whether the participating citizen of a country is emotionally mature, productive and responsible. En route to the final product, educational output may be concerned with the individual still in school, whether as a member of a significant group (e.g., the Canadian Indian, the "gifted," "handicapped," or "disadvantaged."), or as an individual in a given school. Evaluation of education in each of the three areas mentioned above—the total society, the group, or the individual alone—may be illustrated in many ways.

Considering evaluation at the total society level, I would suggest that the Canadian people in 1957 and 1958 made an evaluation of Canadian education and deemed it wanting in technical and vocational training facilities. Hence the vast sums of money voted with remarkable speed by Parliament around 1960 to produce instant vocational and technical schools. This may prove to be one of the most profound legislative acts of the twentieth century in Canada, even though it may have been sparked by "wrong" motives.

Looking for a moment at the output of education for a particular group, there is no better example than that of the education of children of Indian and Eskimo ancestry in Canada. Since the end of World War II the people of Canada have spent hundreds of millions of dollars on improving educational services for Indians and Eskimos, and always the yardstick has been, "How many proceed to high school, then university or technical education?" The answer is always evaluated as alarmingly low, so further huge expenditures are voted

willingly, (possibly because of our mass guilt about the situation). About one-tenth of the money spent in the last twenty years would have accomplished twice the results had it been ploughed into sensitizing all persons teaching Indian children to Indian values and the Indian culture—but there is a value judgment on my part.

Turning to evaluating of output for an individual pupil, parents have been making these since time immemorial, with the question, "Is the school doing the best it can for *my* child?" The yardstick is probably a complex mix of expectations of good academic progress, reasonable facility in sports, and a happiness in school.

To recapitulate, in evaluating educational output, we may consider this in relation to the total society, to a special group, or to the individual. The challenge of such evaluation has not yet been met adequately by educators in Canada or elsewhere. Do we really know whether the graduates of our schools today are going to be mature, productive citizens all their lives? Do we really know whether or not we are doing our best for example, for that great group of children we designate "disadvantaged?" Have we really measured the degree of injustice and damage being done to countless thousands of children by individual teachers, schools, or school systems? I submit that evaluation of educational output is in its very infancy.

EVALUATION OF THE EDUCATIONAL PROCESS. The educational process leads us on to more familiar ground in evaluation, because this is what we do best in the present era. We work quite hard at evaluating the organization of the educational process in terms of control of the school system, and the schools. We look at the process in the classroom, usually focussing on the activity of the teacher as a method of evaluating the process. That we largely ignore group process and individual learning in our evaluation of the educational process, except through marks on examinations, is not to our credit. If we were to spend less time evaluating what the teacher was doing, and more time evaluating what the children were learning in terms of their future functioning in society, we would be evaluators of process. For example, we may thing we are evaluating formal learning through a look at final examination marks, when in fact we may merely be evaluating skill in cheating. At this point, vive Bloom's Taxonomy.

2. Criteria for Evaluation

Three sources may be identiifed as criteria for evaluation of either educational output or educational process. These sources are value systems of a culture, goals of education, and perceived tasks of education.

VALUE SYSTEMS. Our value systems spring from our culture, defined by Sarbin (1954, p. 224) as "an organization of learned behaviors and the products of behavior which are shared and transmitted." Two schools of thought exist concerning the role of the school in connection with values.

The first school of thought is explained by Clark as including those who believe that the task of the school is to transmit the cultural heritage to the next generation, or "to bring hordes of young barbarians to adult ways that are continuous with the past." (1962, p. 2) If we accept this as the complete or partial task of the school, obviously some measure of the success of the school in doing this must be one criterion for evaluation.

The second school of thought holds that the role of the school in connection with values is to deliberately transform the culture through the inculcation of new values. As Taba puts it,

> If the society and the culture are changing, then it is the task of schools to play constructive roles in that change. Education must adjust its aims and programs to changing conditions, and, if possible, foreshadow them . . . (1962, p. 25).

Evaluation based upon this concept obviously must have some device for guessing the needs of the future, a rather chancy business at best. Further, some parents object strenuously to this crystal-ball gazing, and resent the intrusion of the school into parental prerogatives. Witness the fate of the ill-starred Health and Personal Development courses in Alberta some years ago.

GOALS OF EDUCATION. A second source of criteria for evaluation of education lies in examination of the goals of education. The explicitly stated goals are little studied by practitioners after they leave the Faculty of Education, and I would venture it possible to believe that many teachers have entered the classroom without ever giving thought to the official objectives of education. How many readers coluld leap to hteir feet upon request and state: the "rime aim of education in Alberta?" Let me refresh your

memory: "The prime aim of the school is to assist each Albertan youth in his growth towards maximimum self-realization." Department of Education, 1968, p. 4). With this goal I can hearitly agree. With some of the more specific goals, I sense a mixture of contradictory beliefs, values and attitudes which I think may in part explain a proportion of the dropouts in our society, and tho limited output from schools serving pupils of Indian ancestry.

PERCEIVED TASKS OF EDUCATION. A third source of criteria for the evaluation of either educational output or process is the perception of varying publics about the tasks of education. Downey (1960) studied public perceptions of the tasks in a variety of settings, including central Alberta, and discovered somewhat remarkable differences between differing regions of the United States and between United States and Canada. Obviously, criteria for evaluation of either output or process must be based in part upon these perceptions. For example, if one of the most highly-rated tasks of education is the teaching of loyalty to one's own country, teachers who emphasize internationalism and world government may find themselves unpopular with their parental public. Or, if a most important task of the school is perceived (as it is to be in Alberta), the mastery of a body of knowledge, physical education teaching may not be very highly prized.

In summary, the criteria for the evaluation of education stem form three sources—value systems, goals of education, and perceived tasks of education. Some of the more troublesome problems in evaluation come from a mixing of the three sources, or one evaluator working solely from one source, another, from a different source.

3. Collection of Pertinent Data

The third phase in the evaluative process is the collection of pertinent data. Here is a veritable swamp emanating a miasmatic mist of confusion and disorder. For, what data can one collect on educational output? Are retention proportions and Gross National Product real indicators? How does one gather data on the dropouts of ten years ago, on the under-educated, or on the masked illiteracy of a total population? What data are there on the horde of children being permanently alienated from school this year by hostile teachers? These are some of the questions of data collection concerning educational output.

Looking at pertinent data on the organization of schools and the control and management of schools, we are doing somewhat better these days. Respectable instruments are available, and are being used constantly for measuring school climate, leadership, alienation, authoritarianism, dogmatism, and values. Would, however, that there were a data bank for the systematization and ordering of the multitude of findings. (ERIC at the University of Orgeon is an excellent start towards this).

However, if we turn to the collection of data for the evaluation of teacher performance, we are not only in a miasmatic swamp, but a prehistoric one. For sheer lack of system, logic, justice or reliability, data collection on teacher performance surely must lead some parade of helplessness and hopelessness. I speak as one treated more than fairly by my own Inspectors in times past, and as one who visited many scores of teachers as a Superintendent of Schools.

True, some effort is made to guide the observations of Superintendents and High School Inspectors in Alberta, but the results are those outlined in my opening—reports on the same teacher which are so different as to be barely credible. In my opinion, data collection on teacher performance is in a regrettably primitive state.

4. Interpretation of Data and Drawing Conclusions

One of the many things the computer has taught us thing concerning interpretation of data is: "Garbage in, garbage out." A rather more historic and widely-revered authority asks: "Do men gather grapes of thorns, or figs of thistles?" I can only suggest that until we think harder about steps one, two and three, (especially three) in the evaluative process, all the interpretation in the world will be useless, and the conclusions invalid. What is most amazing of all is that we have as many good educational decisions as we have up to now. Probably the most devastating example of the non-evaluation approach to decision-making was a question concerning the gains found as a result of a very elaborate teacher-placement process in a large eastern Canadian city. The reply, after a long pause, was, "We don't question what we do."

The growth of the profession known as "consultant" appears to me to be an indication of the unwillingness or inability of organizations to go through the four steps of the evaluative process, and arrive at ob-

jective, and therefore possibly unpalatable, conclusions.

In this section I have attempted to examine the process of evaluation along the lines suggested by Campbell and Gregg, and apply them generally to our Alberta picture. Having made a plea for systematic, orderly evaluation, I would now like to present a possible scheme for the balanced evaluation of the organizational behavior of teachers and administrators. The scheme will, I believe, apply equally well to output or process, although, of course, the two are indivisibly linked. It is important to remind ourselves that any model for evaluation must spring from the goals of the activity being evaluated. If we accept the position that, broadly speaking, tht goals of education is to help to produce literate, mature individuals capable of critical thinking, the global question for a scheme of educational evaluation must be, "How well does this activity contribute to the production of literate, mature, critical thinkers?" This very broad question can be made manageable by dividing it into five components representing the major disciplines in the behavioral sciences.

IV. AN INTER-DISCIPLINARY BASE FOR EVALUATION

The study of administration is seen by some authorities to be the study of the behavior of people in organizations. If we accept this, it follows that the behavioral sciences should provide an appropriate frame of reference for both the carrying out and evaluating of administrative acts. Further, if we believe that the teacher is an administrator in his own classroom, then the use of the behavioral science model to evaluate teacher performance becomes permissible. Therefore, it is suggested that insights from the five major behavioral sciences—anthropology, sociology, psychology, political science, and economics—may profitably be used to evaluate the performance of teachers and administrators. Consider each of these disciplines in turn as tools with which to evaluate performance.

Anthropology

Anthropology modestly claims that it studies man. Actually, cultural or social anthropology is of most use to us in the process of evaluation. This field of study investigates such things as language, symbols, folkways, values, marriage customs, child-rearing practices, art, handicrafts, kinship groups and religion . . . all the learned behaviors of mankind. How can this study be of use in evaluating teachers or administrators? Consider an example of the effect on the learning situation when insensitivity or ignorance of cultural patterns is present.

One of the nearly universal reactions of teachers first entering a classroom of children of Indian ancestry is that the children won't respond to questions. Either they hide their heads, look impassively at the teacher, or whisper a brief answer which few can hear. Many teachers have been quite unnerved by this, particularly if they have been successful teachers in urban or town settings. Some have thought that the children were retarded, and have shipped complete Grade I classes off to the Guidance Clinic, to be evaluated by culturally-loaded intelligence tests. What these teachers fail to realize is that two cultural factors enter the situation. The first is that in many Indian cultures, the direct question is thought to be quite rude and prying. The second factor is the egalitarianism of many of the Indian tribes. It is not good to be too smart and become a "big-shot," nor is it good to be wrong and thus be "stupid." Imagine, then, the risks that the Indian child runs in answering the teacher's question. If he is right, he becomes a big-shot. If he is wrong, he becomes stupid. Wisdom dictates silence.

If the teacher persists in using culturally-inappropriate teaching methods, obviously his performance must be evaluated as doing little to promote literacy or critical thinking. The pupils are too busy thinking up new ways of dodging his questions. If you think that you will likely never teach or administer a school in a culturally-different setting, consider the impact of Harrington's expression, "the culture of poverty." Immediately it places the slum child in the spotlight of cultural analysis rather than from the false base that he is of our culture, but somehow doesn't seem to do what is "right." ("Right" means doing what *we* think is correct). We can immediately escape from the fallacy of saying, "But they *know* better!" In truth, the slum child does *not* seek to emulate our ways, but seeks to gain status and prestige in the ways of the slums—by physical prowess, fighting, sexual conquests, cursing, defying the authorities, and sneering at intellectuals. These behaviors, so deviant and inappropriate for us, are appropriate, sensible, and

right for the slum child, the product of the culture of poverty.

In evaluating teacher and administrator performance in schools populated by slum children, then, attention must be paid to the manner in which allowance is made for the slum culture, and the proportion of literate, critically-thinking citizens produced in spite of it. And for those teachers and administrators whose service may well be in overseas cultures, evaluation using the tools of cultural analysis is the only way to obtain a sound measure of "betterness."

Sociology

In the discipline of sociology we as educators are on familiar ground. In recent years an option in sociology or educational sociology has been picked up by almost all B.Ed. students, so that they have some inkling of the basic concepts with which sociology deals—the study of institutions, roles, socialization of the individual, formal and informal organizations, social classes, social conformity and deviance—in short, the behavior of people in groups.

Since, obviously, the present formal educational systems of our world are organized in groups, it is most important to be able to handle groups skilfully and productively. Consider some examples of problems in teacher performance where sociological insights might be of value. The teacher whose class is in a constant uproar may not realize that one cause of this is his own leader behavior. He may feel that because he has adequate knowledge, a good voice, a pleasing personality, a high level of motivation to teach well, that he should automatically command the respect of the pupils. In fact, he may be one of the unfortunates who is going to be personal friend of very pupil, little realizing that the expectations of the pupils are for an age and status differential which produces a measure of social distance. He, in fact, has not assumed the mantle of the teacher, which is composed of a respect and liking for children, and a respect and liking for knowledge and the situation in which learning can take place. All these problems lie within the field of sociological analysis, using the concepts of role perception, role expectation, and role performance.

Another example might be that of the administrator who, highly capable himself, refuses to delegate even the smallest tasks to his subordinates. In this way, he fails to release their potential, fails to find out who are capable of being trusted, fails to create a resilient and adaptable staff with depth in all areas. When he is smitten by the 'flu (which we can almost guarantee will happen once or twice a year because of overwork and exhaustion), the school creaks and groans until he returns, because no one knows quite what he does in various parts of his role.

Evaluation of such problems as the teacher whose class is out of control, or of the principal who rules with an iron hand can best be done with the tools of sociology.

Psychology

One of the most deeply-rooted subjects in the curriculum of teacher education is educational psychology. Even the least demanding institution makes an effort to acquaint prospective teachers with some awareness of child development, learning theory, and the signs of emotional disturbance.

Few teachers or administrators seem willing, however, to have the conceptual tools of psychology used to evaluate their performance. Yet, if we are to assess how well the schools are educating growing human beings, should we not examine the personalities of those in whose care we place the children? In my opinion, one of the basic tests for the selection, retention, and placement of teachers and administrators within a school system should be personality measures. Surely, if we are to assist in the attaining of literacy, maturity, and critical thinking, teachers must themselves be mature enough to stand up to the critical thinking inculcated in the pupils.

This leads to a discussion of the marks of maturity. Feinberg (1963) suggests that the mature person displays:

1. acceptance of self (accept what you can't change, but change what you can).
2. acceptance of others, complete with their faults.
3. normal dependency needs (recognition that everyone needs others, but not to the point of parastism).
4. enjoyment of the present.
5. patience with problems.
6. enjoyment of work.

Use of such standard psychological measures as the California Personality Inventory, Rokeach's Dogmatism Scale, or the Adorno F-scale for authoritarianism can provide a relatively solid base for the evaluation of

teacher and administrator performance from the psychological viewpoint, and give further insights into the effect of that performance on reaching the goals of education.

Up-to-date knowledge on learning theory, motivation and creativity are an essential feature of the evaluator's resources if he is to make sound judgments of the learning situation in any given classroom. If he realizes that the creative person, for example, works slowly in the early stages of an exploration, but quickly at the end, he will not fault the teacher for ignoring apparent dawdling on a difficult task undertaken by a creative pupil. If the evaluator accepts the slowness but the permanence of inquiry learning, he will not be impatient with the teacher who has few pupil notes to display.

The examples given in this section may serve to support the notion that the conceptual tools of psychology are wider and more useful in evaluation than some have supposed.

Political Science

"Politics is a dirty business. Stay out of it." This was the advice I received as a youth. By implication, everything to do with politics was dirty business. Political science was thus relegated to the limbo of barely respectable studies, even though it has as its province the study of government, the behavior or set of interactions through which binding decisions are made and implemented for society. Recent writing suggests that political science boils down to considerations of power and decision-making. Those who study adminstration as decision-making might quarrel with this view. Nevertheless, I would hope that the teachers and administrators of today's generation realize that not only is political science useful in the sphere of the country's politics, but also in the study of the government of school systems.

Government is usually studied under five headings by political scientists: (1) political philosophy, (2) law and constitutions, (3) phases of government (e.g., national, provincial, local), (4) political power (e.g. pressure groups), and (5) international politics. Topics three and four would appear to be the most useful to educators, and, consequently, in the evaluation of educators.

At the outset, let me make it plain that this is not a plea for administrators to use Machiavellian means of manipulation to achieve their own ends. Rather, it is a plea for administrators to understand the political processes which further or hinder the movement of the school towards its legitimate goals, and to use these processes intelligently and purposefully to reach the goals. Some of the questions the educator might ask of political science are: Where does the power structure of the community lie? Is the power structure active in school government? Where does the budgetting power of tthe school system really lie? Who is the influential wth the Board—the Superintendent or the Secretary-Treasuer? Who runs my school—the Principal or the staff? If we want to innovate drastically, is there any use getting the Home and School Association behind us?

A recent study of McCarty and Ramsey (1968, p. 23) might prove interesting to alert educators. Their most basic assumption was that differing types of community power structure produce differing kinds of school boards, which, in turn, produce differing roles for the Superintendent of schools. Their suggested model is portrayed below.

Community Power Structure	School Board	Role of the Superintendent
Dominated	Dominated	Functionary
Factional	Factional	Political Strategist
Pluralistic	Status Congruent	Professional Adviser
Inert	Sanctioning	Decision-Maker

The "dominated" power structure is one in which one man or a few men at the top of a pyramid direct the course of events in a community. In a "fractional" power structure there are at least two durable factions that compete for power. Could St. Paul and Spirit River in Alberta be examples? Some communities appear to possess many poles of power, a diffused or pluralistic type. The inert type of power structure is most often found in small rural communities.

As a result of a very carefully designed interviewing type of investigation, McCarty and Ramsey found that the relationships hypothesized in the model were in most cases, true.

Many cases of a superintendent being successful in some settings and not in others immediately become more understandable as a result of this model. For example, an energetic, insightful, innovative superintendent would probably find himself most unhappy in a dominated community power

structure where he is expected to perform the role of functionary. Similarly, a superintendent who had been highly successful as a functionary in a dominated community would likely fail miserably in a factional or pluralistic power structure. The model raises many fascinating questions, some of which apply to power structures within schools, and are related to concepts of organizational climate.

Perhaps the above example may indicate the usefulness of the tools of political science in the evaluation of the performance of teachers or administrators. Untouched lie the questions of the role of provincial governments, teachers' associations, or trustees' associations, in the vast complex of education which must be governed. May I now leave the topic of the use of political science in evaluation with a quotation?

> The evidence suggests that every increment of intelligence means wiser government, but that the crowd prefers to be ill-governed by people it can understand. (Gibb, 1954, p. 886).

Economics

Some find it difficult to place the study of economics within the social or behavioral sciences. Since it deals with the behavior of human beings in the allocation of scarce resources to satisfy wants, however, it is clearly a behavioral science. Economics suggests that the four major resources to be studied are land, labor, capital and management. In thinking of the use of the tools of economics in the process of evaluation in education, results of the use of labor, capital and management apepar to be the most applicable.

Economics would have something to say about the appropriateness of evaluating teachers assigned to teach subjects outside their field of comeptence. (Use of labor) It would have something to say about the stupidity of the Alberta School Act in building in the provision for dual administrative control in rural divisions and counties. (Management) Economics would be critical of school boards which allocate large sums of money to architectural monuments and expensive teaching aids and at the same time search for teachers who are in the lower levels of the salary grid. (Use of capital) Finally, economics is producing evidence that the expenditures on education are not a cost, but an investment which produces growth in income (and in gross national product) of a country which can be explained in no other way. Innes, Jacobson and Pellegrin (1965, p. 40) in discussing the period 1929-1957, state that "the increase in education per laborer accounted for between 16.6 and 32.2 per cent of the growth in income during this period."

Evaluation of the skills of the administrator must surely include the use of the concepts of economics in such obvious ways as defending a budget, and in less obvious ways such as recruiting higher-priced, but better-qualified teachers for the school system.

The Wide-Spectrum Evaluation

The preceding discussion of the use of the five major behavioral sciences as a framework for evaluating teacher and administrator performance may leave one rather breathless. A few measuring instruments of some respectability were mentioned, but largely, the suggestion is that the evaluator systematically reflect upon the behavior of the teacher or administrator in each of the five modes of thought. Naturally, this places a rather heavy responsibility upon the evaluator to have a working knowledge of the five disciplines. (This is an oblique hint for a high level of professional preparation for admistrators).

The point is that without this systematic, consistent, wide-spectrum method of evaluation, anomalies such as the two vastly-different inspection reports mentioned at the beginning of this paper will continue to appear. One evalulator may be writing from a strictly psychological base of learning theory as he understands it. Another may be operating from a sociological base of group control, or a political science base of power. Both reports may be right, but only half right . . . and what is so dangerous as a half-truth?

In drawing the threads together and leading into a "Cloud 9" pictogram, I would like to mention two major points in evaluation of human behavior. The first is incongruence of perception; the second, zone of acceptance.

Incongruence of Perception

One of the most fascinating sub-specialties in psychology is that of the study of perception. Its tentacles lead into every area of human existence, and the documentation of varying perception of the same event or object is so extensive as to not require quoting here. The relevance of the topic in a paper on evaluation lies, however, in the gross errors of judgment that can be

made by teachers or administrators in evaluation of their own behavior. They may perceive their behavior as perfectly appropriate, even highly appropriate, whereas their many publics may perceive it as inappropriate or even grotesque.

For example, teachers who consider it appropriate, for any reason, to alter pupil's answers so that the pupil may pass, find that the public almost universally considers this behavior highly inappropriate and well within the definition of "gross misconduct" in *The School Act*. On the other hand, parents who consider that breaking a child's nose by striking it with a roll-up scribbler is inappropriate and actionable in the courts will have a rude shock when they find, as one parent did, that this is quite within the legal definition of appropriate teacher behavior. Apparently, it is something which a reasonable parent might be expected to do.

Perhaps these examples illustrate the point that incongruence between the self-perceptions of the educator and the perceptions of others of his behavior may be a cause for highly negative evaluations. Examination of the facets of his behavior under the headings of the five behavioral sciences may yield revealing clues as to where the basic incongruences lie. This, in turn, may give a lever for counselling and assisting the educator to a greater degree of self-awareness and better performance.

Zone of Acceptance

This term is a variant of Barnard's (1938, pp. 168-9) term "zone of indifference." "Zone of acceptance" refers to the degree of variation in behavior which the public is willing to accept as "normal." Clearly, this is related to perception of behavior.

The teacher in an isolated northern settlement may feel it quite proper to wear a filthy parka because all the local people do. The Principal, on the other hand, may not be able to accept this type of behavior, since it is not within his zone of acceptance as a professional person. Conflicts arise when wide variations exist in the zones of acceptance of differing sectors of the public, all members of which are constantly evaluating the educator and educational services. Few public social services are as highly visible as education. This may, in part, help explain the conservatism of the average teacher, who wishes to stay well within the zone of acceptance of his publics. When there are many publics with many differing zones of acceptance, the educator either becomes very conservative or opts out and finds a position where he can "be himself," i.e., know that his behavior is within the zone of acceptance of the majority of the citizens.

Discussion of incongruence of perceptions and of zone of acceptance now makes it possible to present the integrating pictorial model which sums up the method of evaluation proposed in this paper.

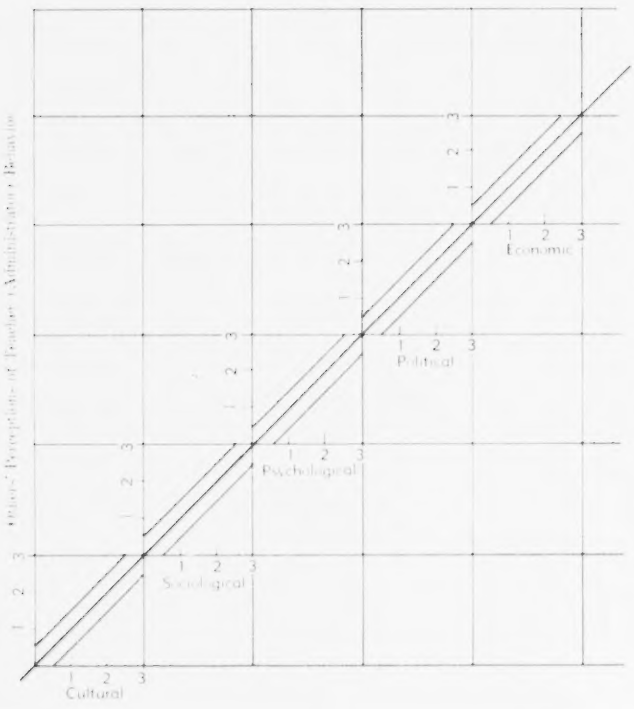
V. A TENTATIVE MODEL OF THE EVALUATIVE PROCESS

The model in Figure 1 is an attempt to give visual reinforcement to the general concept put forth in this paper that evaluation must proceed from a systematic use of the insights of the behavioral sciences. These insights must be applied to the behavior of teachers and administrators within the context of the goals of education. The global question to be asked is, "How well does this behavior contribute to the growth of mature, literate citizens capable of critical thinking?" It is further suggested that two critical variables affect the use of the analytical tools of the behavioral sciences: incongruence of perception, and zone of acceptance of behavior.

Turning to the diagram itself, observe that the horizontal axis is labelled "Self-perception of Behaviour," and the vertical axis, "Others' Perception of Behavior." A three-point range of informed guesses is postulated in order to plot the congruence between the perceptions of the individual and the perceptions of others regarding his behavior. Presumably, the "Others" perceiving him are those in supervisory positions over him, although at times "Others" may include pupils, parents, or politicians. The self-perceptions of the teacher or administrator may be grossly inaccurate, yet form a valuable diagnostic indictator should he get into difficulties with his publics.

Each of the five behavioral sciences is represented in the diagram by a square placed along a diagonal to the axes of the model. Each square is considered independent, allowing the insertion of varying widths of "zones of acceptance." It is now the task of the evaluator to make judgments along the lines such as the following:

In the square entitled "Cultural" the evaluator must ask, "How well does the teaching (administrative) behavior of this individual move the child towards the goals of education from a cultural point of view?" If poorly, the score would be 1; if reason-



Self-Perception of Teacher (Administrator) Behavior

Fig. 1. AN INTER-DISCIPLINARY MODEL FOR THE PROCESS OF EVALUATION IN EDUCATION

ably, 2; if very well, 3. In order to plot for incongruence, it would be necessary to ask the teacher the same question to obtain his perception of his behavior. For a teacher to be secure in his position, the resulting plot of the two perceptions should fall within the zone of acceptance of the community in which the teacher works. To receive a rating as a skilled educator, the plot should fall in the "3" category.

Similarly, in each of the other four squares, labelled "Sociological," "Psychological," "Political" and "Economic," plots of the two perceptions could be made. Two types of findings emerge from this scheme.

The first finding is an evaluation of the acceptability of the educator within his own community. The second is a rating as to the perceptions of his competence as a teacher (administrator).

No great skill is needed to find points of contention about this model. It must be clearly understood that this is in one sense a mathematical model, and the "scores" are not isomorphic with arithmetic—they cannot be added, subtracted, multiplied, or divided. It would be tempting, however, to add the scores from the various headings of "Others' Perceptions," to get a composite index of educational behavior. However, the very fact that the "scores" are based on perceptions which, by definition, may be grossly inaccurate, render any attempt to play with the model mathematically a rather dubious pastime.* Another deficiency in the model is the lack of specificity of the very large domains entitled "anthropology," etc. An evaluator would of necessity require a guide as to the major components of each of the behavioral sciences before he could make his rankings under each rubric.

Obviously, the evaluative model proposed in this paper is not absolute in any sense, but quite relative. As times change, cultural and social norms for excellence in teaching and administration change. To have enduring value, therefore, an evaluative model must have built-in provision to accommodate cultural and social drift. It is a basic premise of this paper that perceptions of appropriateness of teaching or administrative style to the goals of education are a more defensible criterion of excellence than absolute criteria such as the proportion of pupils who "pass" certain examinations, or who gain matriculation standing in a certain school.

VI. CONCLUSION

In this paper I have attempted to examine the process of evaluation in education. The concept of value was discussed briefly, followed by treatment of the four phases of the evaluative process. It was suggested that in education we may evaluate output or process. The major point of the paper was that objective, effective valuation must emerge from an interdisciplinary base of the five behavioral sciences—anthropology, sociology, psychology, political science and economics—all used within a context of goals of education. Some attention was paid to incongruence of perception and the phenomenon known as "zone of ac-

*It was pointed out by participants at the Principal's Leadership Course that in this model it is possible for a person to receive a plot of 1-1 (meeting criteria poorly both by his own and others' perceptions) and still fall within the "zone of acceptance" for teaching (administrative) behavior. Obviously this would not be within the zone of acceptance of his publics, and he would probably be asked to resign. If, however, there were congruence between his own perceptions and those of the public, he would likely resign without protest. Possibly the model could be modified by using converging lines to indicate the "zone of acceptand," rather than parallel lines. If they were to converge at "O", it would better indicate the precariousness of the teacher's (administrator's) position when both he and his publics know that he is weak.

ceptance." Finally, a pictorial model including the most significant features of the conceptual model was proposed, and some limitations noted.

If the rather wide-ranging discourse in this paper has assisted in ordering the confused thinking about the evaluation of teachers and administrators, it may have served some useful purpose.

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SOME CRITICAL ISSUES IN EDUCATION

D. A. MacKAY

INTRODUCTION

The main purpose of this paper is to provide a commentary about some of the broad issues associated with an attempt to define the role of the school principal. This analysis of the principalship will be based primarily on the elements in the administrative process which, as defined by Gregg, provides a rather useful way of thinking about administrators and their activities. Of the seven elements in the process (i.e. decision-making, planning, organizing, communicating, influencing, coördinating, and evaluating), *three* have been chosen as topics for this analysis. These are decision-making, evaluation and planning. In each case, what might be called the one or two really big issues will be identified and discussed. The hope is that by focussing on a few of the issues, some perspective on the importance of the principal's role may be achieved.

Decision-Making: The Issues Identified

It has long been evident to writers in administration, and is now becoming apparent to many who are concerned with the structure and control of educational organizations, that the question of who should make what decisions is not nearly as easily answered as was once believed to be the case. In other words, one of the basic issues in decision-making is:

WHO SHOULD PARTICIPATE IN DECISION-MAKING?

A second question in this area has to do with the procedures which will be used in making decisions. Obviously there is more to decision-making than selection of the persons who will be involved; there is a need, for example, for information, for material resources, and for all the capabilities which will contribute to a rational, a "good", and/or an acceptable decision. This suggests that it is important to raise the following question:

WHAT IS THE BEST WAY TO MAKE GOOD DECISIONS?

Decision-Making: The Issues Defined

A brief elaboration of each of these two questions might lay the groundwork for a more useful discussion of possible ways of dealing successfully with them.

The question of who should participate in decision-making is quite simply answered in a hierachical organization. Only the officers of the organization make the decisions. Applied to the school setting, the principal, vice-principal, and department heads would be the decision-makers.

One should not for a moment believe that this centralized decision-making is a thing of the past in school organizations. There are many examples of schools where staff members do not participate, to any serious degree, in decision-making.

Perhaps it would clarify the issue if one were to explore some of the reasons why teachers do not always become involved. One obvious possibility is that administrators (principals) do not permit heavy involvement. Another possibility is that administrators may construct a facade of "participatory decision-making" behind which they continue to pull the strings, to manipulate the decision-making process. It is also quite possible that the structure of the school system, both provincial and local, makes any effort to increase teacher involvement a rather useless thing. Among other reasons are such things as teacher apathy, lack of know-how about group decision-making, sheer neglect by the administrator in the all-important task area of organizing for decision-making, and so on.

One can usefully ask why some administrators do not give teachers a place in decision-making. Sometimes the reason, as mentioned above, is sheer neglect or inability. That is, administrators with the best purposes in mind may not have any notion of how an organization can function with maximum diffusion of decision-making activities. For them, the bureauratic organization is their single model. While teachers on their staffs seek more involvement and while they themselves sometimes have uneasy feelings about how they are operating, they really don't see any other way of structuring the organization. Al-

though such failings deserve criticism, one has to admit that alternatives to the hierarchical structure in schools have not as yet been fully developed or field tested. Of course, there is much writing about the need to debureaucratize the schools and there is a good deal of research indicating that the bureaucratic structure of schools has several ill effects. What are missing are precisely defined alternative models which are compatible with both the goals of the schools and the needs of professional teachers. Some of the solutions which have emerged or are emerging are in the nature of temporary measures in the sense that the problems are merely relieved rather than finally solved. For instance, the transfer of power from administrators to teacher organization officers merely represents an exchange between two kinds of organizational elite. The fact that one elite is appointed and the other elected does not necessarily mean anything about participation in decision-making. Another so-called solution to the professional-bureaucratic conflict is to have an almost complete withdrawal of administrator influence from the decision-making process. This latter expedient is sometimes called laissez-faire, sometimes democratic administration, and, perhaps more accurately, sometimes called chaos.

On has the hunch that many principals have tended toward abandoning their role in favor of an undirected pattern of staff decision-making. This may leave the staff (including the principal) in the position of making decisions with no adequate supporting information, inadequate procedures for obtaining consensus and acceptance, and no notion of implementing anything of a long-range, policy nature. In Halpin and Croft's terms such schools are big, happy families; but the likelihood of anything effective happening is certainly not increased by the administration's contribution to the operation.

As mentioned already, teacher apathy towards decision-making also plays a part. There are supposedly many militants in the ranks of the teaching profession; however, much of this so-called militancy may still be at the normative level, in the attitudes of the teachers, rather than evidenced by their actual behavior. One can contend that as individual professionals, teachers have often failed to exert the kind of influence which might be classed as militance. While it is true that through their collective organizations, they have sought for and obtained many things, as individuals, they have not always been noted for standing on their own two feet in the face of bureauratic authority. Perhaps (indeed, probably) this is why they have needed a strong organization to represent them; however, it does not indicate that teachers are as militant as they have been reputed to be.

What is suggested here is that apathy is still the rule rather than the exception and that the reasons for this apathy are numerous. One way in which principals can have an impact upon this apathy is by insisting that teachers become involved and by creating a pattern of decision-making which will enable them to make useful decisions. The magic phrase "in-service education" and its equally magic cousin "motivation" are of importance here. Teachers and principals need to learn how to make group decisions; they need to generate, in their schools, the mechanisms which will provide the supporting information, the implementation procedures, and so on, which the decision-making process requires. It's not enough that principals transfer the right to make decisions; they must develop suitable patterns of organization and of behavior before apathy can be attacked directly.

This last suggestion puts principals in the dual role of trainer-motivator. They must on one hand help teachers to develop the skills required for group decision-making, and, on the other, put across the urgent message that participation is necessary. Reliance on the teachers' organization to carry this message is a mistake. It is a mistake because what it does is increase the importance of another organizational elite and does nothing to solve the problems of teacher involvement. What can happen as a result of this kind of move is that two organizations have apathetic members. In one case, the officers of the teacher organization are worried about lack of participation; in the other case, school administrators are concerned. One end result is that the two elites find themselves in conflict in the political arena of negotiations while the "rank and file" membership participates only in a passive way.

It would seem to be important to re-emphasize the potential of the principal's role in this area. As an almost non-political figure in the school system, the principal can strive for involvement of staff members as professionals without running too great a risk of confrontation with the teacher organization as such. Moreover, if one believes that an essential feature of professional decision-making is that it occur as

close as possible to the operational level, then the principal must contribute to developing an effective participatory decision-making process.

Implicit in this discussion of "who should make what decisions" are the seeds for a fruitful discussion of the other question, namely, what is the best way to make good decisions? To clarify this question, it is necessary to say that there is no one best way of making decisions; that, while there are general guidelines to decision-making as a rational process, there are no machine-like procedures which are guaranteed to turn out a perfect product. What one must be able to do is to identify the variables and relationships involved in decision-making and do his best, in a given context, to take account of the probable consequences of decisions before implementing them. This is far from any computer-like image of the perfect administrator; but it is a realistic view of what administrative behavior is like.

Moreover, the meaning of a "good decision requires elaboration. At least two kinds of "goodness" are implied by this term; one is based on the notion that decisions are to some extent successful or not. The other kind has to do with the acceptability of the decision in terms of its implementation. Many so-called good decisions are never realized simply because they were unacceptable to influential groups or individuals. For example, an excellent decision about school centralization may be made by a school board and its administrators; but if the public does not accept the decision, a few parent and pupil strikes, boycotts, etc., will eventually nullify the decision.

So, when one tries to deal with either of the questions raised here, care must be taken in accounting for the different meanings and implications which the questions will have.

Evaluation: The Issues Identified

From among all of the questions which could be raised about the administrator's role as an evaluator, the following has been selected for discussion here:

WHAT CONSTITUTES SUCCESSFUL LEARNING?

This may seem to be a question that is rather removed from a discussion of the principal as administrator. It obviously requires one competent in the fields of learning theory, curriculum, and in the setting of educational objectives to deal with this question. For that reason, the basis for this discussion will be in a recent paper by Professor Benjamin Bloom of the University of Chicago. What will be attempted here will be a commentary on what his arguments may mean for the school administrator.

The reason for raising this as a question at all is rather simple. Schools have as their goal the achievement of learning on the part of pupils. Administrators are effective to the extent that they help to achieve these goals in an efficient (with all its connotations) manner. Therefore, administrators, when they evaluate themselves and their programs, must refer to criteria which are more or less related to pupil learning. Any of the other indicators (such as economic efficiency, morale, etc., etc.) are, at best, only indirect indicators of goal-achievement. At worst, they may cause the administrator and the organization to become too concerned with elements of the system which are only proximately related to the goals. This, then, is an argument for inclusion of pupil evaluation as one area where the issues are crucial and where administrators must come to grips with the question stated above. The rationale for this discussion is drawn from Bloom's analysis of "Learning for Mastery."

His argument is based on the motion that there are five variables which bear upon learning. They are:

(1) Aptitude for particular kinds of learning;
(b) Quality of Instruction;
(3) Ability to understand instruction;
(4) Perserverance;
(5) Time Allowed for Learning.

Any strategy for learning, says Bloom, "must include some way of dealing" with these five variables. A brief review of each of the five variables will help to explain Bloom's point of view. First, however, his basic assumption is somewhat as follows: schools do provide successful learning experiences for some students—perhaps as high as one third of the students. The almost holy veneration in which the normal curve is held has guaranteed failure for significant numbers of pupils regardless of what they actually learn in any absolute terms. As Bloom puts it, "our educational efforts have been unsuccessful to the extent to which our distribution of achievement approximates the normal distribution." though there are high and low extremes in

APTITUDE. Bloom suggests that al- aptitude in any subject area or skill, (probably about 5% at each extreme), that aptitude is really "the amount of time required by the learner to attain mastery of a learning task" (Carrol, 1963). Given enough time, most students can attain mastery of a learning task. If this is so, then some 95% (the 5% at the upper extreme of aptitude + 90 % who are "not hopeless") of students can achieve mastery.

The time and efforts required may make mastery prohibitive in terms of cost; but Bloom's point is that this becomes a policy or administrative decision rather than something inherent and irrevocable in the nature of individual learners themselves.

QUALITY OF INSTRUCTION. The aim in the past has been to develop methods, instructional materials and teachers which will be effective in achieving group results. Bloom argues for an emphasis on developing learning tasks which approach an optimum for each individual learner. As partial support for the plausibility of his argument, he cites a research study (Dave, 1963) which indicates that tutorial assistance by parents (which one supposes, takes account of individual learning idiosyncrasies) tended to mitigate the usual relationship between measures of aptitude in mathematics and measures of achievement in math. In other words, the tutorial help led to mastery which was not dependent solely on measured aptitude. For students in a control group who received no such special, tailor-made assistance, the typical strong relationship between measured aptitude" and achievement peristed (r = + .90).

ABILITY TO UNDERSTAND INSTRUCTION. The ability to understand instruction is closely related to an individual's verbal ability and reading comprehension. Studies indicate a high relationship between these two measures of language ability and achievement in most subjects. A critical issue here is that most change in verbal ability can be produced at the pre-school and elementary school levels with less and less change being likely as the person grows older. However, improvement in reading ability can be made at all ages although the payoff decreases with increasing age.

The foregoing suggests that differences in ability to understand instruction should be dealt with by modifications in instruction. Group study procedures, and tutorial help, as well as the traditional large group procedures would seem to be effective, although costly, ways of modifying instruction. Different textbooks, workbooks, audiovisual materials, and so on, can also take account of differences in ability to understand.

PERSERVERANCE. John Carrol has defined perserverance as the time the learner is willing to spend in learning. Indications from existing studies are that perservance is directly related to the frequency of reward and evidence of success in the learning task. At the operational level, this suggests immediate feedback to the learner. What is noteworthy here is that frequency of feedback can reduce the need for perserverance in that the learner does not have to wait for lengthy periods of time for rewards to come. As Bloom says, "Endurance and unusual perserverance may be appropriate for long-distance running—they are not great virtues in their own right."

TIME ALLOWED FOR LEARING. The reliance which school organizers have traditionally placed on definite periods of time for particular learning tasks is seriously questioned by Bloom. He argues that each student should be allowed the amount of time he needs to complete each learning task. A strategy for mastery must include some way of organizing schools so as to provide different amounts of time for different pupils.

IMPLICATIONS. For administrators, especially school principals, the import of Bloom's arguments is fairly obvious. He is saying that our traditional and stereotyped ways of evaluating pupil performance have developed in us a rather limited, and in some ways an inaccurate, set of expectations about pupil learning. Identification of the crucial variables and insistence on the meaning of available research evidence leads to the conclusion that mastery should be a legitimate goal for instructional programs. The probable impact upon pupils in terms of their cognitive growth, and their emotional and psychological development is great. "Mastery", as Bloom concludes, "can give zest to school learning and can develop lifelong interest in learning."

Planning: The Issues Identified

The process of planning is one which overlaps to a great extent with all phases of administrator activity. Every administrator,

no matter how unsophisticated, operates with some kind of a plan however tenuous or short-term it might be. The point of view here is that educational planning has become fairly well defined as a specialized area and it has become clear that an increase in the capabilities of educational administrators as planners is required. As a question basic to the school principal's involvement in planning, the following is proposed:

HOW CAN THE SCHOOL PLAN FOR THE EDUCATION OF EACH CHILD TO HIS FULLEST POTENTIAL?

This is such a broad issue that it encompasses everything that the school does. Yet, it seems to be the fundamental question as far as planning is concerned. After all, the purpose of educational planning at any level is to develop human resources; but resources viewed not merely in an economist's sense; but in terms of individual and societal potential for what is truly human. While some of the skills associated with planning have developed in non-humanistic disciplines, there is good reason to suggest that educational planning cannot legitimately be viewed as just another aspect of a *1984* or *Brave New World* view of human resource development.

Planning: The Issues Defined

As a basic premise to this discussion of planning, the assumption is made that today's schools are not at all coping with this problem of human resource development. Such indicators as drop-out rates, failure rates in post-secondary institutions, unemployment, and so on, provide evidence for this assumption. When one looks at achievement levels in terms of scores on various standardized examinations (including provincial and school system common exams) the picture is far from perfect. Parents have many complaints to level at our schools in terms of the kind and quality of learning activities in which their children engage. Teachers and administrators are aware of some of the shortcomings; but too often have charged them off to deficiencies in the pupils, the community, the school environment, the "administration", the provincial examination system, and just about everyone else from Pierre Eliot Trudeau down to the school janitor.

What is clearly needed, among other things, is a serious attempt by school workers to develop a plan which will make provision for a larger number of possible alternatives than are now being recognized. Just as the "underdeveloped" countries of Africa are developing plans to attack illiteracy, school administrators in Canada's urban and rural areas must develop plans for dealing with the needs of their people.

While there are some who may say that planning is too socialistic for our society, the fact of the matter is that educational organization in Canada has been created and developed in a way which reflects the influence of factors other than the needs of individual pupils. Provincial, regional (in Alberta, this level of planning could be of extreme importance), and local planning capabilities must be created. School administrators must develop their own skills as planners and learn to make use of the growing effectiveness in professional, full-time planners.

Summary and Conclusion

In this paper an attempt has been made to focus on several critical issues in three major areas of the administrative process. The approach used has been based on some of the accumulating body of knowledge about school organization, about learning, and about planning. Yet the whole paper has an ideological, exhortative flavor which is not usual in a review of this sort. This emphasis on the values and purposes of education in today's world has been deliberate; the exhortation is intended to urge school administrators to come to grips with some of these issues so that the skills which they have as administrators can be focussed on solving the critical problems of society through developing adequate instructional programs for its learners. With Bloom, this paper questions some of our fundamentally-held beliefs about pupil learning; it urges an exploration of new patterns of decision-making, and emphasizes the possible usefulness of newer administrative tools in the attempt to achieve the goals which schools and school workers have before them.

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